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*HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 69*

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# MANCHURIA

LONDON:
PUBLISHED BY H. M. STATIONERY OFFICE.

1920

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# EDITORIAL NOTE

In the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connexion with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious, and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous inquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics, and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

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It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes ; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly*
*Director of the Historical Section.*

*January* 1920.

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# I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

## (1) Position and Boundaries

Manchuria, the north-easternmost dependency of China, is bounded by the Chinese provinces of Chihli and Mongolia on the west; by the Siberian provinces of Transbaikalia, Amursk, and Primorskaya on the north-west, north-east, and east; and by Korea on the south-east. On the south it projects into the Yellow Sea, the Liaotung peninsula being washed by the Gulf of Liaotung to the west and Korea Bay to the east. It lies between 38° 40′ and 53° 30′ north latitude and about 116° and 135° east longitude. The area is probably something over 350,000 square miles.

The frontiers on the north, east, and south are clearly demarcated, almost wholly by rivers and the sea. The western boundary is for the greater part undefined in any reliable document or map, and is political or ethnical.

The diplomatic instruments in which are recorded the limits on the north and east of Manchuria between the Russian and Chinese dominions are the Treaty of Nertchinsk, 1689, the Treaty of Aigun, 1858, and the Treaty of Peking, 1860. By the first the Argun river was adopted as the boundary in the north-west, and this is the only portion determined in 1689 which has remained unchanged; by the second the Amur was made the frontier from the Argun to the Ussuri river on the north-east; and by the third the Ussuri, Lake Hinka, and a portion of the watershed as far as the Tumen river were fixed as the limits on the east.

Between Korea and Manchuria (provinces of Kirin and Shengking or Fengtien) the long-established boundaries are the Yalu and Tumen rivers, the sources of



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which almost meet in the highest summits of the Changpai-shan (Ever White Mountains). A vexed question arose between China and Japan, after the Russo-Japanese War, in regard to a portion of the Korean frontier (Chientao): this dispute was settled by an agreement of September 4, 1909, in which the Tumen was adhered to as the boundary.

On the west, between Manchuria and Mongolia, the boundary lies between the grazing-grounds of Mongol tribes and the cultivated lands of Chinese immigrants from Chihli and Shantung. In some maps the line is drawn to include in Manchuria the Barŭkh (Barkhut, Bargu, or Barga) country in the north-west, but the Barŭkhs are nomads, under a separate organization like the Chahars on the Chihli border, and their country must in an ethnical sense be considered part of Mongolia; politically the Chinese regard them as neither Mongol nor Manchu. South of the Barŭkh country the administrative boundary has been steadily advancing westward with the movement of Chinese colonization, and is now west of Taonanfu in land traditionally Mongol. The south-western boundary of Shengking between that province and Chihli is an old-established one, and can be relied upon.

If Barŭkh is included in Mongolia, the boundary runs north-west and south-east, crossing the Khingan range in about longitude 120° east, and turns sharply eastward to the Nonni river in latitude 47° north; thence it trends south and west across the valley of the Liao and Ta-ling rivers to the sea near Shanhaikwan.

## (2) Surface, Coast, Rivers, and Lakes

### *Surface*

The line of the Amur and Sungari rivers from Khabarovsk to Harbin divides Manchuria into two approximately equal parts, each of which has a mountain system of its own.

In the northern half, which consists of the province

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of Heilungkiang, the Great Khingan Mountains run from north to south across the western part of the province and continue into Mongolia, while the Little Khingan range roughly follows the line of the Amur along the eastern border. These two ranges are linked together in the northern part of the province by the Ilkhuri-alin range.

The Khingan system, which covers the greater part of Heilungkiang, seldom rises beyond 4,000 or 5,000 ft., and is covered with dense forests. In the southern half, which consists of the provinces of Kirin and Shengking, the mountain system consists of a number of ranges radiating from a peak 8,000 ft. high on the south-eastern border. These mountains are lower as they trend southwards, their chief characteristic being that they are precipitous towards their summits. Lava is seen in the neighbourhood of Ninguta, 40 miles south of which is a very extensive lava field called the Plain of Stone. All the mountains are clothed with timber and cut up by ravines.

The flat country, which is in places very fertile, is confined to the basins of the Liao and the Sungari, and to the steppes north of Tsitsihar. The soil of the Liao is alluvial; that of the Ashiho plain around Harbin is composed of black earth and yellow clay; while that of the Liaotung peninsula is of a sandy nature with a mixture of gravel.

### *Coast*

The coast-line of Manchuria measures some 600 miles in length, stretching from the Great Wall at Shan-haikwan (Linyü) to the mouth of the Yalu. There is a small junk harbour near Shanhaikwan, available as a landing-place for boats, and the shore is here low, being the edge of an undulating plain 10 miles in breadth, broken, however, by low headlands terminating in reefs.

There are two harbours frequented by junks on this section of the coast; one between the island of Tao-hua and the mainland, which serves as the seaport of



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Ningyüanchow; the other at Ta-chia-tsun at the head of Chinchowfu Bay. An artificial harbour has also been constructed on the south side of Hulutao promontory, which can be kept free of ice in winter, and has depths of 18 to 30 ft. The head of the gulf is bounded by a great plain, and the shore after turning eastward becomes very low. Three miles north-north-east of Kaichow Point the Kaichow river flows into the bay. Owing to the shallowness of the approach, it is navigable by small craft only, and large junks have to lie about 3 miles off shore. Hills now begin to rise from the plains, and 12 miles inland a mountain ridge, 2,000–3,000 ft. high, extends parallel to the coast into the leased territory of Kwantung. In the Liaotung peninsula, these hills tend to hug the north-west coast, so that the slope on that side is steep.

From Kaichow Point to Fuchow Bay the coast is indented but affords little shelter. A favourable anchorage is found in Hulu-shan Bay, some 17 miles south-west of Fuchow Bay, which is sheltered by the island of Changsing, except from westerly winds. Two smaller islands, Hsichung and Fengming-tao, lie to the south, at the entrance of Society Bay, which is 26 miles across and 20 miles deep. Its head is divided by a rocky promontory into two parts: (1) Port Adams, the northern arm, is an inlet 18 miles long, with a navigable channel 2 to 8 cables broad, which gradually decreases to a shallow mud flat with narrow channels suitable for very small craft. The southern side is fertile and well cultivated, but the northern is steep and barren. (2) The southern arm of Society Bay is Kinchow Bay, which has depths of 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms and a soft mud bottom. Farther west is Cape Collinson, and 14 miles farther south is Laotieh-shan promontory, with two small bays which afford shelter in 4 fathoms from all but westerly winds.

Eight miles from Laotieh-shan promontory is the military port of Lü-shun-kou or Port Arthur, a large inlet with an entrance about 300 yds. wide. It is available for vessels of all sizes, and is ice-free in

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winter. The East Port is a tidal basin, 500 by 350 yds., and 23 to 26 ft. deep. The West Port contains many mud flats, but a certain area has a depth of 21 to 35 ft. East of Hsiaoping-tao, a narrow peninsula 261 ft. high, the coast becomes broken and rocky. Thirty miles east by north of Port Arthur is Talienwan Bay, 6 miles wide and 6 miles deep. Dairen (Dalny), 40 miles by rail from Port Arthur, is on the south shore of Victoria Bay. The outer part of the bay is generally free from ice in winter, and though the inner bay may freeze slightly, it seldom interferes with navigation. East of Talienwan Bay is Yentao Bay, which affords a well-sheltered anchorage, but is rather shallow. At its head is the mouth of the Wu-hu-men river.

The coast from this point trends east-north-east for 76 miles to the mouth of the Tayang-ho, and is hilly and bordered by extensive mudbanks. About 9 miles north-east of Terminal Head is the mouth of the Tasha-ho, and 6 miles farther in the same direction is the small town of Pi-tzu-wo, with an ice-free harbour much frequented by junks. From Pi-tzu-wo to the Yalu river the sea along the coast is very shoal, and there are three principal groups of islands lying off it, the Blonde, Elliot, and Bourchier. Farther out is the island of Haiyang-tao, with a peak 1,320 ft. high. Thornton Haven on its western side is the only harbour in these islands where small vessels may find shelter in $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 fathoms. Four small streams flow into the sea between Pi-tzu-wo and the Tayang-ho, a somewhat larger river which can be ascended by boats as far as Taku-shan, 8 miles from the mouth. Larger junks and small steamers anchor some miles off the coast, south of the island of Talu-tao.

Tatungkow, a treaty port, is situated at the head of a tidal creek just within the mouth of the Yalu river. Two narrow channels lead into the Yalu, of which the eastern is most used by vessels proceeding to Antung, some 20 miles up the river. For four months in the year the approach is ice-bound.

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### *Rivers*

As regards rivers, Manchuria falls into two well-defined portions corresponding almost exactly, one with the southern province of Shengking, which drains into the Yellow Sea, the other with the two northern provinces of Kirin and Heilungkiang, which drain into the Amur, with the exception of a small area in the south-east of Kirin, the waters of which find an outlet into the Sea of Japan.

The greatest Manchurian river is the *Amur*. Formed by the confluence at Ust-Strelotchnoi of the Shilka, whose course lies wholly in Siberia, and the Argun, which separates Manchuria from Russian territory on the north-west, the Amur itself constitutes the northern and north-eastern frontier as far as Khabarovsk, and eventually flows into the Gulf of Tartary at Nicolaevsk. There are the wildest discrepancies in the figures given for the length of the river. The fact seems to be that the actual course from Ust-Strelotchnoi to Nicolaevsk is between 1,600 and 1,800 miles, but by reckoning up to the head-waters of various constituent streams, the Argun, the Shilka, or the Onon, different authorities arrive at totals of 2,700 or even 2,920 miles.

For the first 337 miles of its course, the Amur flows through a narrow valley deeply cut into the plateau. This widens for the 263 miles above Blagoveschensk, but there is very little cultivation, and the river is constantly changing its course. Below Blagoveschensk, the Amur in its middle course waters the high fertile plains (1,000 ft. above sea level), which stretch between the Ilkhuri-alin and Little Khingan Mountains. The stream here divides into several branches, sometimes 5 miles apart. At Pashkova it enters a gorge 87 miles long, and then issues into the lowlands, attaining the most southerly part of its course at its junction with the Sungari, whose volume of water is nearly equal to its own. After this it widens still more, dividing into large branches enclosing islands, and during summer rains rising considerably and forming lakes 10 to 12

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miles wide on both banks. The Amur is closed by ice from October to May.

Proceeding up-stream, the first southern tributary of the Amur is the *Ussuri*, which rises in the mountains north of Vladivostok and forms the boundary between Manchuria and the Primorskaya from Lake Hinka (Khanka) to its confluence with the Amur near Khabarovsk. It is in all 350 miles long.

The next and most important tributary is the *Sungari*, which with its tributaries waters the great central basin of Manchuria, and whose drainage area must amount to about half the whole country. Rising on the north-western slopes of the Changpai-shan range, the Sungari first flows north-west past Kirin to join the Nonni, and then north-east past Harbin into the Amur, at a point 135 miles above Khabarovsk and the junction of the Ussuri. Its length is some 600 miles. Above its junction with the Nonni the Sungari is also sometimes known as the Sonhoa-kiang.

The Sungari has two important tributaries, the Nonni and the Hurka. The *Nonni* rises on the eastern slopes of the Great Khingan Mountains north of Tsitsihar, and flows from the north to join the Sungari not far from Petuna. Small craft are said to ascend it for some 350 miles as far as Mergen, a Chinese garrison town about 125 miles south-west of Blagoveschensk, above which point its course has not been fully explored.

The *Hurka* or Mutan-kiang rises about 100 miles south-west of Ninguta and almost the same distance south-east of Kirin, and after passing Ninguta flows due north into the Sungari at Sansing, some 200 miles above its junction with the Amur. Its total course measures over 250 miles.

The *Argun*, which flows from the Dalai-nor or Kulun-nor lake to Pokrovsha, completes the list of the principal Manchurian tributaries of the Amur. Three smaller streams, the Kumara, the Panga, and the Albasicha, drain the northern portion of Heilungkiang.

The only eastward-draining river of Manchuria is

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the *Tumen*, which, rising on the eastern slope of the Changpai-shan range, forms the boundary between northern Korea on the one hand and Manchuria and the Primorskaya on the other, and flows into the Sea of Japan, after a course of over 200 miles.

In the south the chief rivers are the Yalu and the Liao. The *Yalu*, whose head-waters are on the south of the Changpai-shan range, forms for its entire course the south-eastern boundary of Manchuria, separating it from Korea, and flows into the Gulf of Korea near Tatungkow. It has a course of some 300 miles.

The *Liao* river rises beyond the borders of Manchuria, and its upper course, known as the Shara-muren, forms for more than 300 miles the boundary between Mongolia and Chihli. The name Liao, however, is also applied to a northern tributary which joins the main stream just above Tungchiangtzu and is properly known as the Tung-liao or Hersu river. A more important tributary is the Hun-ho, on which stands Moukden, and which unites, shortly above its confluence, with the Taitze-ho from Liaoyang. The Liao river flows into the Gulf of Liaotung, after a Manchurian course of some 250 miles, and its mouth is much obstructed with sand-banks.

### *Lakes*

These are few and unimportant. South of Ninguta is Lake Birten (Nan-hu); north of Vladivostok the boundary of Manchuria passes through the upper waters of the large Lake Hinka; and in the Barga country are the Dalai-nor (Kulun-nor) and Buir-nor. There are considerable marshy regions along the courses of the Sungari and Nonni.

## (3) Climate

The climate of Manchuria is continental, with a short spring and autumn, a very cold winter, and a hot summer. From November to March north to north-

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easterly winds prevail. In March strong south-westerly winds set in and blow for about two months; and in summer southerly and south-westerly winds prevail. Sudden northerly gales occur and are to be looked for in October.

The frozen season extends in the north from October to the end of April, and the temperature not infrequently falls to −58° F. (−50° C.), while the ice on the Shilka and the Argun rivers is 6 ft. thick. The cold is less intense in central Manchuria and decreases considerably in the south, where the frozen season ends at the beginning of April. Thus the temperature of Harbin averages −1·5° F. (−18·5° C.), of Moukden, 7·5° F. (−13·5° C.), and of Dairen, 24·5° F. (−4·2° C.). Dairen and Port Arthur are ice-free ports, but the river mouths and the rivers themselves elsewhere are frozen for about six months in the year, and the ice is thick enough for cart traffic.

April is the spring month in the greater part of Manchuria, the temperature averaging 42° F. (5·5° C.) at Harbin, 48° F. (8·8° C.) at Moukden, and 47·5° F. (8·5° C.) at Dairen.

In May summer begins, and in June, July, and August the heat is great, the temperature averaging about 75° F. (23·8° C.), the maximum being 99° or 100° F. (37·2–37·7° C.). The difference in the summer heat of the northern and southern districts is slight, the central parts of the province being hottest. October is the pleasantest month of the year.

The average annual rainfall for the province is 21·3 inches (540 mm.), of which 26 per cent. falls in July and 21 per cent. in August. The rainy season lasts longer in the north, but there the rain is lighter. In the south it is very heavy for a short period, and renders the country impassable, except in the few districts where modern roads have been made. The snow-fall is comparatively light, covering the highways to a depth of one or two feet, and permitting the use of sledges.

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## (4) Sanitary Conditions

The climate of Manchuria is healthy, the summer heat being temperate, and the winter, though severe, dry and invigorating, so that with ordinary precautions in the sterilizing of water and food and with sanitary surroundings the European has nothing to fear.

The common diseases among the Chinese are a mild type of enteric fever, small-pox, dysentery, and a sort of ophthalmia. The last is occasioned by dust and aggravated by dirt and neglect; it can be cured if taken in time, but if treated by the native methods frequently results in blindness.

## (5) Race and Language

The original Manchus belonged to the Tungusic branch of the Ural-Altaic family. For a long time they were able to resist penetration by the Chinese, but in modern times the latter flowed into the country, and now constitute 90 per cent. of the population. The two races have mixed, and pure Manchus are found only in the northern parts of the basin of the Sungari and along the Ussuri. In Heilungkiang and eastern Kirin there are a number of small Tartar tribes, such as the Yu-pi-ta-tzu or Fish-skin Tartars on the Sungari, below Sansing, and the Gilyaks, or Long-haired Tartars, on the upper Amur and its tributaries; besides the Sibo and Solon Manchus, the Olcha, and the Goldi. In the districts adjoining the Tumen river large numbers of Koreans have settled, and form the majority of the population. There are also some Japanese and Russians, who are mostly settled along the railways.

Chinese is the common language of Manchuria, as the Manchu language is practically extinct. The latter is of Tungusic origin, composed of dissyllabic roots, the meaning of which is modified by agglutinative suffixes. Japanese is to some extent spoken in southern Manchuria and Russian in the north.

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## (6) Population

### *Distribution*

According to the Minchengpu census of 1910 the population of Manchuria was 14,917,000. The Customs estimate for the same year was 17,000,000. The Japanese *Official Guide* gives an intermediate figure, 15,834,000, distributed as follows:

| | *Area. Sq. Miles.* | *Population.* | *Density per Sq. Mile.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Heilungkiang . | 166,700 | 1,456,000 | 8·73 |
| Kirin . . | 100,000 | 4,222,000 | 42·22 |
| Shengking . . | 88,900 | 10,156,000 | 114·24 |
| Totals . . | 355,600 | 15,834,000 | 44·5 |

The following figures are taken from the *Statesman's Year Book* for 1918:

| | *Area. Sq. Miles.* | *Population.* | *Density per Sq. Mile.* |
|---|---|---|---|
| Heilungkiang . | 203,000 | 1,500,000 | 7·39 |
| Kirin . . | 105,000 | 6,000,000 | 57·14 |
| Shengking . . | 56,000 | 10,312,241 | 184·14 |
| Totals . . | 364,000 | 17,812,241 | 48·93 |

The bulk of the population is congested along the railways, in the Liao valley, and in the Sungari basin.

The Hunchun and Lungchingtsun districts in the Tumen basin have populations of 40,000 and 125,000 respectively. For the rest the country is sparsely populated, the inhabitants being scattered in small towns and villages; or, in the north especially, leading a nomadic life and engaged in hunting and trapping.

### *Towns*

The chief towns in the north are Aigun (30,000), opposite Blagoveschensk on the Amur; Manchuria Station and Khailar on the Chinese Eastern Railway; and Tsitsihar (30,000) on the Nonni river.

In the Sungari basin are Kirin (about 100,000); Petuna or Sinchengfu (30,000); Shwangchengfu (40,000);

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Harbin (about 100,000); Hulan (30,000); Bayansusu (30,000); Ashiho (30,000); Sansing (15,000); and Ninguta on the Hurka (30,000).

On the North China Railway are Chinchowfu (30,000) and Newchwang (70,000). On the Southern Manchuria Railway are Changchun (about 100,000); Kaiyuan (28,000); Tiehling (33,000); Moukden (173,549); Liaoyang (30,000); Haicheng (15,000); Kaipinghsien (17,000); Dairen or Dalny (46,000); and Port Arthur (45,000).

*Movement*

In the absence of reliable statistics it is impossible to speak of the birth and death rates or of the increase and decrease of the population in general. The chief source of increase is immigration, the immigrants coming from Mongolia, Korea, Russia, Japan, and more especially from China.

In the Tumen basin alone there are not less than 60,000 Chinese settlers. There must be quite 50,000 Russians and about the same number of Japanese, settled mainly along the railways. But the main flow of immigrants comes from the Chinese provinces of Chihli and Shantung. It is said that 250,000 Chinese come over from Shantung every spring, and though the majority of them return in the autumn, there are always a number of permanent settlers. It is estimated that 100,000 Chinese have settled in the Kirin district alone during the last eight years.

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# II. POLITICAL HISTORY

[This Section is intended to be read in conjunction with *China*, No. 67 of this series.]

## Chronological Summary

Tenth century. Establishment of the Liao dynasty by the Khitans.
1115. Foundation of the Chin dynasty by the Nüchêns.
Thirteenth century. The Nüchêns driven out by the Mongols under Jenghiz Khan.
1644. Fall of the Ming dynasty. Rule of the Manchus.
1689. Treaty of Nertchinsk between Russia and China.
1847. Russian exploration of the Amur.
1851. Nicolaevsk and Mariinsk founded.
1853. Alexandrovsk and Constantinovsk founded.
1858. Treaty of Tientsin between China, Great Britain, France, Russia, and America.
1858. Treaty of Aigun between Russia and China.
1860. Convention of Peking between Russia and China.
1881. Treaty of Petersburg between Russia and China.
1895. Treaty of Shimonoseki between China and Japan.
1897. Seizure of Kiaochow by Germany (November).
1897. Russian fleet sent to Port Arthur (December).
1898. British cruisers at Port Arthur (January).
1898. Port Arthur leased to Russia (March).
1899. Russo-British Railway Agreement.
1900. The Boxer outbreak.
1900. Manchurian provinces declare war on Russia (June).
1900. Occupation of Manchuria by Russia.
1902. Russo-Chinese Agreement of Peking for the evacuation of Manchuria.
1902. Convention between Manchuria and Japan.
1905. Treaty of Portsmouth.
1905. Treaty of Peking and additional Agreement between Japan and China.
1909. Boundary and Railway Agreements between China and Japan.
1910. Russo-Japanese Convention.
1910. Annexation of Korea by Japan.
1911. Treaty of Tsitsihar between Russia and China.
1914. Capture of Kiaochow.
1915. Treaties and exchange of Notes between China and Japan.
1916. Russo-Japanese Treaty.

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*Early History.*—Before the conquest of China by the Manchus, Manchuria was the abode of various tribes of the Tungus race, sparsely distributed along the courses of the rivers. These tribes were known to the Chinese under many names, amongst which Khitan and Nüchên (Nüchih) stand out; they were mostly forest hunters, though those in southern Manchuria became to a large extent farmers. The Khitans made their first appearance in the beginning of the tenth century, when they established the Liao dynasty and ruled a territory embracing much of south-west Manchuria, east Mongolia, and north Chihli. Two centuries later they were in turn overthrown by the Nüchêns, who were the direct ancestors of the Manchus. In 1115 the Nüchêns founded the Chin (Golden) dynasty, and, a century later, were driven out by the Mongols under Jenghiz Khan; but their descendants, the Manchus, returned to power on the fall of the Ming dynasty (1644), and ruled the Chinese Empire until the revolution of 1911.

*Treaty of Nertchinsk*, 1689.—Early in the seventeenth century the Russian penetration of Siberia extended to the Amur basin and led to conflicts with the newly-established Manchu dynasty. These were put an end to by the Treaty of Nertchinsk (1689), under which the Russians were forced to retire behind the Argun river and beyond the Amur watershed on the north.

*Treaty of Aigun*, 1858, *and Treaty of Peking*, 1860.—Early in the nineteenth century the attention of the Russian Government was again directed to the Amur, and an unsuccessful attempt appears to have been made to obtain from the Chinese the right of using it to facilitate communication with Okhotsk and Kamschatka. Later, under the active rule of Count Muraviev, Governor-General of Eastern Siberia, from 1847 onward the river was explored without reference to China, and settlements were established on its banks. In 1851 Nicolaevsk and Mariinsk were founded, and in 1853 Alexandrovsk and Constantinovsk were established on the sea-coast, all in territory which was

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unquestionably Chinese according to the Treaty of Nertchinsk. These encroachments, and others of a more warlike nature, arising out of the needs of the Crimean War, were the subject of protest from China, whose hands were tied by the Taiping rebellion and the disputes with Great Britain; and finally, under pressure from Muraviev, the Treaty of Aigun was concluded (May 29, 1858) to regularize the new conditions. Under this the whole of the north bank of the Amur from the Argun fork to the sea was recognized as Russian; the south bank down to the Ussuri as Chinese; and the territory between the Ussuri and the sea was to be held in common, pending a settlement of the frontier. Later, advantage was taken of the second Chinese war with Great Britain to press claims to the Ussuri country, and on November 14, 1860, General Ignatiev signed a convention at Peking under which China ceded this tract to Russia.

For over 30 years little more was heard of Manchuria. The port of Newchwang, opened by the Treaty of Tientsin (June 1/13, 1858), was the only point of general foreign interest, and that was purely commercial, until the quarrel between Japan and China over Korea brought the question of Manchuria acutely to the notice of the European Powers.

*Treaty of Shimonoseki*, 1895.—Under the treaty of peace concluded at Shimonoseki on April 17, 1895, by Count Ito and Li Hung-chang, the southern portion of the Shengking (Fengtien) province of Manchuria was ceded by China to Japan.

There had been for some years a current of opinion that the ice-free port in eastern Asia which Russia was in search of was to be found in the territory thus handed over to Japan. At all events, Russia, in the interval between the signature and ratification of the Treaty of Shimonoseki, invited the Great Powers to intervene in order to preserve southern Manchuria to China, on the ground that the occupation of Port Arthur by Japan would 'destroy the political balance of the Far East'. France and Germany fell in with

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this view, but Great Britain declined to do so. In May 1895 Russia, Germany, and France made joint representations to Japan, recommending her not to occupy permanently the territory ceded in southern Manchuria, and indications were given that the advice, if unheeded, would be supported by force of arms. Japan yielded to this coalition, and in a Convention of November 8, 1895, retroceded the districts in question, receiving as compensation a money payment of 30 millions of taels from China. In return for her services in this matter Russia was given by China the right to carry the Siberian Railway across northern Manchuria from Stretensk to Vladivostok (Chinese Eastern Railway); and it is further said that a secret treaty, known as the 'Cassini Convention', but more probably an understanding negotiated by Li Hung-chang at Moscow, gave Russia the right in certain contingencies to occupy Port Arthur.

In connexion with this and later events it may be mentioned that in 1896 an official statement was made in the Reichstag that Germany had come to an understanding with Russia on their respective interests in China.

*Lease of Port Arthur*, 1898.—After the seizure of Kiaochow (November 1897), and while Germany and China were negotiating, the Russian fleet was sent to winter at Port Arthur (December 1897), and when two British cruisers put in there in January 1898 the Russian Ambassador in London was instructed to request their withdrawal 'in order to avoid friction in the Russian sphere of influence'. In March 1898, when the German Convention was signed, a demand for a lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan was put forward by Russia. A sharp correspondence ensued between the British and Russian Governments. The British Government were not opposed to 'the lease by Russia of an ice-free commercial port connected by rail with the trans-Siberian railway', but pointed out that 'questions of an entirely different kind were opened if Russia obtained control of a military port in

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the neighbourhood of Peking', and that the occupation of Port Arthur 'would inevitably be considered in the East as a standing menace to Peking and the commencement of the partition of China'. China, being unable to resist it, acquiesced in the demand; and the British Government received assurances that 'the Russian Government had no intention of infringing the rights and privileges guaranteed by existing treaties between China and foreign countries'. By an agreement of March 27, 1898, Port Arthur, Talienwan, and adjoining territory (Kwantung), all of which had been retroceded by Japan in 1895, were leased to Russia for twenty-five years.

*Exchange of Notes between Great Britain and Russia respecting Railway Interests in China*, 1899.—In the spring of 1898 the Chinese Government entered into negotiations with a British bank to raise a railway loan, secured on the lines already constructed, for an extension of the North China Railway through southern Manchuria to Newchwang. The Russian representative at Peking, M. Pavlov, demanded that the British engineer should be replaced in the sections north of Tientsin, and objected to these railways being mortgaged to British subjects with a right of control in case of default.

The British Government took the matter up strongly both at Peking and St. Petersburg as a breach of the Treaty of Tientsin, and in the end the British railway loan was carried through. At the same time an agreement was concluded between Great Britain and Russia, by an exchange of Notes on April 29, 1899, in which the former engaged

> 'not to seek for her own account, or on behalf of British subjects or of others, any railway concessions to the north of the Great Wall of China, and not to obstruct, directly or indirectly, applications for railway concessions in that region, supported by the Russian Government';

while Russia, on her part, gave an identical undertaking with respect to railway concessions 'in the basin

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of the Yangtze' and applications for railway concessions in that region, supported by the British Government.

*Occupation of Manchuria by the Russians and Russo-Chinese Agreement of* 1902.—During the Boxer outbreak the Governors of the Manchurian provinces declared war on Russia (June 1900), in obedience to the Imperial Decrees issued under the influence of Prince Tuan. Their sudden attacks created a panic along the Amur and led to savage reprisals, the Chinese population of Blagoveschensk, some 5,000 men, women, and children, being at the outset driven into the river. Soon afterwards Manchuria was overrun by Russian troops, and proclamations were issued by the Russian commanders which amounted to declarations of conquest. In December 1900 a Russo-Chinese agreement, concluded at Moukden by the local Chinese authority, came to light, by which the province of Shengking (Fengtien) was placed under Russian control, and this was followed up by negotiations at St. Petersburg with the Chinese Minister for the conclusion of a formal convention which would, in effect, constitute a Russian protectorate over Manchuria. Some leading Powers advised China to abstain from separate negotiations with one Power while the joint conferences for the Boxer settlement were proceeding at Peking, and a strong Chinese opposition arose. The Chinese Minister at St. Petersburg was instructed to refuse his signature, and on August 6, 1901, the Russian Government issued an official communiqué to the effect that, their instructions having been misrepresented, the Convention was temporarily dropped.

Soon after the return of the Chinese Court from Sianfu to Peking (January 1902), Russia renewed her negotiations. She abandoned some of the demands which had been objected to the year before, and, on March 26/April 8, 1902, an agreement was signed at Peking which provided for the evacuation of Manchuria by stages in eighteen months. That the terms were so moderate was due to the support given to China by Great Britain, Japan, and the United States. It was soon

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apparent that they did not satisfy the Russian Government. In October 1902 the railway between Shanhaikwan and Newchwang was restored to the Chinese, and the country west of the Liao river was evacuated in accordance with the agreement; but when it appeared that, in the negotiations of Japan and the United States for the commercial treaties provided for in the French Protocol with China, three new ports were to be opened in Manchuria, Russia refused to carry out the second stage of evacuation until certain further demands, designed to rivet Russian control on Manchuria to the exclusion of all other foreign influences, were conceded.

Great Britain, Japan, and the United States again supported the Chinese in refusing the fresh demands, and representations were made by all three Powers at St. Petersburg. China being unable to press matters to a practical conclusion, Japan, whose interests ranked next in importance, entered into negotiations at St. Petersburg and offered to recognize the special position of Russia in Manchuria if Russia would recognize that of Japan in Korea, and provided also that Russia would join with Japan in an engagement to recognize the territorial integrity of China and Korea, and to maintain the 'open door' in both countries. Russia refused to make the smallest concession, and the Russo-Japanese War resulted.

*Treaty of Portsmouth*, 1905.—The Treaty of Portsmouth, by which the Russo-Japanese War of 1904–5 was brought to an end, recognized the 'predominant political, military, and economic interests' in Korea of Japan; provided for the simultaneous evacuation of Manchuria by the forces of Russia and Japan; and transferred to Japan the Russian lease of Kwantung (Liaotung) with all the privileges attaching, including that portion of the Chinese Eastern Railway south of Kwanchengtze (Changchun). Manchuria, except the leased territory, was to be restored 'entirely and completely to the exclusive administration of China', whose consent to the transfer of Liaotung to Japan



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was to be obtained. Russia disavowed the possession of exclusive rights in Manchuria inconsistent with the 'open door', and Japan and Russia

engaged reciprocally not to obstruct any general measures common to all nations which China might take for the development of commerce and industry in Manchuria.

The southern part of the island of Sakhalin up to the 50th parallel of north latitude was ceded by Russia to Japan under Article IX of the Treaty of Portsmouth. Japan and Russia mutually agreed not to construct fortifications in their possessions on Sakhalin or on the adjacent islands, and not to take any military measures which could impede the free navigation of the Straits of La Pérouse and Tartary.

In Article XI of the same treaty Russia undertook to come to an agreement with Japan to concede to Japanese subjects fishery rights along the Russian coasts in the Seas of Japan, Okhotsk, and Behring.

*Treaty of Peking and Additional Agreement between China and Japan respecting Manchuria*, 1905.—China's consent to the transfers and assignments made by Russia to Japan by the Treaty of Portsmouth was obtained in a treaty between Japan and China signed at Peking on December 22, 1905. In an Additional Agreement regulating railway and other matters, China engaged to open a number of towns in all three provinces of Manchuria to international residence and trade. China's own position in Manchuria was not greatly altered by these documents: she had two Powers to deal with instead of one, for Russia retained her railway zone in northern Manchuria; but in the south Japan was at this period more conciliatory in her methods than Russia had been.

*Agreements between China and Japan*, 1909.—But vexed questions arose with Japan over Manchurian affairs, and the tension was not removed until the conclusion of two agreements (September 4, 1909), in one of which the Tumen river was made the boundary between China and Korea, and Koreans were allowed

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to settle freely in the border district of Chientao, but were made subject to Chinese jurisdiction; in the other railway and mining questions were arranged.

*Policy of the United States*, 1909.—After the Russo-Japanese War there had been a marked tendency on the part of the United States to champion the rights of China against Japan. In 1909 an active policy, commercially and politically, was inaugurated by President Taft in China, and the first step taken was to insist on the participation of American financiers in the Hukuang railway loan. The real aim, however, was Manchuria, where there had been for years a special American trade interest. An American group was given a concession for a railway in Manchuria from Chinchow to Aigun, and in November 1909 an unsuccessful proposal for the neutralization of railways in Manchuria was made to Great Britain, France, Germany, Russia, Japan, and China by the American Secretary of State.

*Russo-Japanese Convention*, 1910.—Shortly afterwards (July 4, 1910) and no doubt in consequence of this last proposal, Japan and Russia signed a Convention in which the two Powers agreed to work together on Manchurian questions and to maintain the *status quo* in Manchuria resulting from treaties and other arrangements concluded up to date between Japan and Russia, or between either of them and China.

The treaty of August 22, 1910, by which Japan annexed Korea, altered the status of the numerous Koreans inhabiting the Chinese borderlands, and entitled them to the privileges of Japanese consular jurisdiction. This must be noted as an important addition to Japanese interests in southern Manchuria.

*Treaty of Tsitsihar*, 1911.—Since the Russo-Japanese War China has been disposed to treat Russian affairs with little consideration, and disputes connected with the long Siberian frontier accumulated. The conclusion of the 1910 Convention with Japan emboldened Russia to take a stronger line with China, and on February 16, 1911, she made a series of demands at Peking to secure the full enjoyment of the 1881 treaty, which she

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alleged had been practically abrogated. After a long discussion, on March 24 an ultimatum was delivered by Russia, and the acute controversy was closed by a note of the Wai-wu Pu accepting the Russian demands completely and unequivocally. Later (December 20, 1911) a treaty was concluded at Tsitsihar delimiting the frontier in northern Mongolia from 'frontier point No. 58 to frontier point No. 63 and further along the Mutny tributary up to the River Argun', and thence along the Argun to the Amur.

*Treaties and Exchange of Notes between China and Japan*, 1915.—Following the capture of Kiaochow (November 7, 1914) Japan made a series of demands upon China. Some of these were reduced in the course of the subsequent negotiations; but in the treaties and exchange of Notes which recorded the final settlement (May 25, 1915) the following terms relating to South Manchuria were included:

1. The term of the lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan, and the terms of the South Manchurian and Antung railway concessions, were extended.

2. Japanese subjects were privileged to lease land and to trade throughout South Manchuria.

3. Mining areas in South Manchuria were allotted to Japanese enterprise.

4. A preference was given to Japanese capital if required for railways in South Manchuria, or if loans were made on the security of the local taxes; and

5. If foreign advisers or instructors on political, financial, military, or police matters were to be employed in South Manchuria, Japanese were 'to be employed first'.

It is noteworthy that the 'South Manchuria' of these documents is an indefinite term and the interpretation of it may easily lead to disputes.

*Russo-Japanese Treaty*, 1916.—By a Treaty of July 3, 1916, Japan and Russia agreed that neither should be 'a party to any political arrangement or combination directed against' either of them, and to 'take counsel of each other as to the measures to be

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taken in view of the support or the help to be given in order to safeguard or defend the territorial rights or the special interests in the Far East of one of the contracting parties ' should these be threatened.

Concurrently with the conclusion of this treaty, the Russian Government ceded 60 miles of the Chinese Eastern Railway between Changchun and the River Sungari to Japan, in appreciation of the goodwill shown by the latter since the commencement of the war in regard to the supply of munitions. In addition, Russia agreed to recognize, so far as she was concerned, Japan's right of navigation on the Sungari between Kirin and the junction of the rivers Nonni and Sungari. This right was secured to Russia under Article II of the Aigun Treaty of 1858 between China and Russia ; hitherto it had been exercised only by Russian and Chinese subjects.

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# III. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

## (A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

### (1) Internal

#### (*a*) *Roads*

The roads in Manchuria are bad, being little more than tracks, more or less defined, between town and town. Unmetalled owing to the scarcity of stone, they easily wear into ruts and become quagmires in the rainy season. It is when frozen hard during the four months of winter that they are best fitted for travel, and they then have to bear an enormous traffic of two-wheeled country carts. These vehicles, each carrying from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons and drawn by as many as eight or nine mules, travel in convoys sometimes half a mile in length, bearing a miscellaneous freight of native and foreign produce.

Among the principal routes provided with better-class roads is that from Yingkow (Port Newchwang) through the old city of Newchwang [1] to Liaoyang, and thence by three branches to Moukden. Another such route runs from Liaoyang to the Yalu. On some of the main lines of communication bridges have been built by local merchant guilds; on others in the north and east they have been supplied by the Government to facilitate the conveyance of troops. The Imperial post routes, such as that from Tsitsihar, *via* Petuna, to Kirin, and from Kirin, *via* Ninguta, to Nikolsk in the Primorskaya or Maritime Province of Siberia, are slightly better than the ordinary roads. In winter the frozen channel of the Liao river takes the place of a road, as likewise does that of the upper Sungari.

Trading caravans make their way from the province

[1] Concerning Newchwang see below, p. 40, foot-note.

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of Shengking (Fengtien) into Kirin and Heilungkiang and even into Mongolia, and do so in comparative safety so long as they pay blackmail to the *hunghutzu* or local brigands, whose numbers are continually being recruited from the discharged soldiers and escaped convicts.

Good roads, to act as feeders to the rail and water ways and so reduce the cost of raising and marketing country produce, are an urgent economic need. At present roads are secondary to rivers in the system of Manchurian communications.

### (*b*) *Rivers*

In general Manchuria is well provided with navigable rivers; it was estimated in 1901 [1] that 20,000 boats of some seven to fourteen tons burden were engaged in the river trade, and the number must have greatly increased since that date.

The principal waterway of Manchuria is the *Amur*. Although it is sometimes said that of the whole course only 450 miles are navigable by steamers of 12 ft. draught, it appears that steamers of 16 ft. draught can proceed for 150 miles above Khabarovsk. Higher up, though in general of fair depth, the river is interrupted by shallow bars which limit navigation to boats of 5 ft. draught below Blagoveschensk and of 3 ft. draught above that town. Nevertheless, small steamers not only reach Ust-Strelotchnoi, but proceed up the Shilka for a distance of 200 or 300 miles. The mouth of the Amur is closed by sand-banks; goods are unloaded at Mariinsk and go by rail to the port of Alexandrovsk, ten miles off. The river is frozen from November to March, but during the summer months a service, with extension on the Ussuri, is maintained by the Amur Steamship Co. both above and below Khabarovsk. Some twenty years ago a fleet of 45 steamers was already plying. At the same time it is admitted that the great expectations formerly entertained of the economic importance

[1] Hosie, *Manchuria*, p. 239.

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of the Amur as an avenue of trade have hardly been fulfilled.

Of the tributaries of the Amur, the *Ussuri*, on the eastern frontier of Manchuria, is of considerable importance as a means of communication. It is navigable from its confluence near Khabarovsk up to Lake Hinka (Khanka), a distance of 300 miles, and is regularly navigated by steamers for over 200. Next, the *Sungari*, whose basin includes the most fertile land of Manchuria and on whose banks stand the flourishing towns of Harbin and Kirin, is navigable by shallow-draught launches for 600 miles up to Kirin, while several Russian and Chinese companies run steamers between Harbin and Amur ports. Above Kirin the river is only useful for communication during the period November–April, when it is frozen and forms a road for sledges. Of the tributaries of the Sungari, the *Nonni* is navigable by large junks and small steamers up to Tsitsihar, and by lesser craft considerably farther; while the *Hurka*, which passes Ninguta and has its confluence at Sansing, is seldom navigated even by boats. The *Argun*, a tributary of the Amur on the north-western border of Manchuria, is navigable for 460 miles to near the Kulun-nor lake.

The *Tumen*, which flows into the Sea of Japan, is navigable by small steamers for 13 miles from its mouth and by junks for 60 miles.

In the south the *Yalu*, though navigable by steamers drawing 8–10 ft. of water as far as Antung only, and by river junks for no more than another 50 miles, is the outlet for the timber trade of the Changpai-shan, of which the chief marts are at Antung and Tatungkow. It also serves the town of Wiju (Gishu), the terminus of the Korean Railway opposite Antung. The river is ice-bound from the end of November to the middle of March, and is liable to floods in July and August.

The *Liao* rises far away in the west, but has as Manchurian tributaries the *Hun-ho*, on which Moukden is situated and which is navigable by junks almost up to that town, and the *Taitze-ho*, which serves Liaoyang.

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The Liao itself has been made navigable for ocean-going steamers, drawing up to 17 ft., as far as Newchwang, a treaty port about 14 miles from the mouth. Beyond this the river is available for junks to Tiehling or even Tungchiangtzu, a distance of some 200 miles. When frozen during the four months of winter, the Liao river forms one of the chief highways of the country for cart traffic.

### (*c*) *Railways*

The Manchurian railway system consists in general of a line running north-west and south-east through the northern provinces, joined by a line from Harbin to Port Arthur running north-east and south-west through the southern. From Moukden, on the latter, lines branch south-east to Antung and south-west to Shanhaikwan on the way to Peking. The Moukden–Port Arthur and Moukden–Shanhaikwan lines are further joined by a branch through Newchwang.

The histories of these lines and their branches and the conditions under which they work are, however, so different that it will be most convenient to treat separately the three main systems of which they form part, namely the North China Imperial Railway, the Chinese Eastern Railway, and the South Manchurian Railway.

(1) The *North China Imperial Railway* runs from Peking, *via* Tientsin, to Shanhaikwan on the Manchurian border, and thence, *via* Chinchow, Kowpangtzu, and Hsinminting, to Moukden. This line, which was partially opened as early as 1903, has a length of 523 miles, but only about 265 miles, or just over half, lies in Manchuria. From Kowpangtzu a branch, 57 miles long, runs south-east to Newchwang. Another branch seven miles long connects Lienshan, a station some 25 miles south of Chinchow, with Hulutao, where a harbour has been built (see below, p. 41). These are apparently the only Manchurian branches open to general traffic; but there are others, presumably light industrial lines; one connecting Kaokiao, between

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Lienshan and Chinchow, with Tienkiaosang, a point on the coast north of Hulutao, and another running from near Chinchow to the Nanpiao coal-mines on the Chihli frontier. The latter may be connected in some way with a Chifeng–Chinchow project which forms part of the Chihli Extra Mural Railways scheme. At one time there also existed a light railway running north from Hsinminting to Kangpingsien on the Liao river not far from Mongolia.

The line from Hsinminting to Moukden was originally built by the Japanese as a light railway with a gauge of $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft., during the war with Russia, and was sold to China for £160,000 in virtue of an agreement concluded on April 15 and ratified in November 1907. By this compact half the cost of the reconstruction of the section of the line east of the Liao river, a sum namely of £32,000, was borrowed from the South Manchurian Railway Company in the form of a five per cent. loan at 93, secured upon the property and receipts of the whole undertaking.

The North China Railway is built to the standard gauge of 4 ft. $8\frac{1}{2}$ in. In 1913 it possessed 123 locomotives, 311 passenger coaches, and 2,936 goods wagons capable of carrying 59,795 tons of freight. Additions made up to June 1914 increased the capacity to 62,554 tons.

The capital of the railway, which is Anglo-Chinese, amounts to 49,971,571 dollars. In 1912 it carried 3,495,707 passengers and 3,450,393 tons of goods, earning a revenue of 5,257,591 dollars from the former and 6,850,353 dollars from the latter. The total receipts were 13,183,638 dollars, and the expenditure 3,820,657 dollars, the ratio of expenditure to receipts being 28·98 per cent. In 1913 the ratio was 36·29 per cent., with receipts at 13,841,991 dollars and expenditure at 5,024,049 dollars. In 1915 the ratio had risen to 52·37 per cent., receipts being 14,768,000 dollars and expenditure 7,735,000 dollars.

(2) The *Chinese Eastern Railway* was originally built in virtue of an agreement concluded in 1896 between

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the Chinese Government and the Russo-Chinese Bank. By this a company was to be formed with a capital of 5,000,000 rubles and none but Russian and Chinese shareholders, to build a line between Manchouli (Manchuria) on the Siberian frontier (there to connect with the Trans-Siberian Railway), and the eastern frontier of Manchuria, near Suifenho, with a continuation to Vladivostok, a distance of over 900 miles. The line was to be constructed within six years to a gauge of 5 ft., the same as that of the Siberian Railway. After thirty-six years the Chinese Government was to have the right of purchase on payment of the actual cost together with the debts and interest due on the undertaking, while after eighty years from the completion and opening of the line, the railway was automatically to become the property of the Chinese Government.

By the Convention of March 1898 Port Arthur and the Kwantung peninsula were leased to Russia for a term of twenty-five years, which might be extended by mutual agreement. Provision was made at the same time for the construction by Russia of an extension of the Chinese Eastern Railway from Harbin southward to Dairen (Dalny) and Port Arthur. Russia likewise acquired administrative control over Harbin and Tsitsihar as lying within the railway zone, and the right of exploiting all minerals within 15 versts (10 miles) of the railway, of maintaining a corps of 20,000 men and officers on the line, and of imposing differential tariffs for or against goods and places.

By the Treaty of Portsmouth, concluded on September 15, 1905, Japan obtained the cession of all Russian railway rights in Manchuria as far north as Changchun (Kwanchengtze), 152 miles south of Harbin, although the railway zone actually occupied during the Russo-Japanese War ended at Changtu station, 106 miles farther south. The provisions of the Treaty of Portsmouth were recognized by China on December 22, 1905.

The Manchouli–Suifenho line forms a section of the Trans-Siberian Railway. By thus crossing Chinese territory the Russian Government relieved itself for

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the time being of the extra cost which would have been involved in the construction of an alternative route (now existing as the Amur Railway) 342 miles longer, and escaped important engineering difficulties in connexion with bridges and tunnels. Work on the Chinese Eastern Railway was begun in the spring of 1897; the northern portion was opened in 1901, the southern in 1903. The length of the Manchouli–Suifenho section is 921 miles and of that from Harbin to Changchun 152 miles, making a total of 1,073 miles.

A branch line is contemplated, some 50 miles in length, to join Ninguta, an important town on the River Hurka in eastern Kirin, to the main line at Mulin. There is also a Chinese project for a private narrow-gauge line from Harbin to Shuhui, about 150 miles due east.

The original capital of the Chinese Eastern Railway Company was, as already stated, 5,000,000 rubles; its present capital is not ascertained, but is Russian. The cost of construction is variously given, but the most careful estimate puts the cost of the whole system to July 1, 1905, at 450,700,000 rubles,[1] and that of the portion ceded to Japan at 92,700,000 rubles, leaving 358,000,000 rubles as the cost of the portion remaining under Russian control. Further expenditure down to July 1, 1910, had brought this figure up to 540,300,000 rubles.[2] However, about 350,000,000

[1]

| | *Rubles.* |
|---|---|
| Original cost . . . . | 375,000,000 |
| Interest to July 1, 1903 . . . | 54,600,000 |
| Total . . . . . | 429,600,000 |
| Less sum paid by China . . | 70,000,000 |
| Remains . . . . | 359,600,000 |
| Improvements, maintenance, and interest for two years . . . | 91,100,000 |
| Total . . . . . | 450,700,000 |

[2] Dr. E. J. Dillon in the *Contemporary Review*, April 1910, quoted by L. Lawton, *Empires of the Far East*, p. 1325.

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rubles is usually taken as the actual cost of construction of the present Chinese Eastern Railway.

In 1912 the railway carried 1,660,533 passengers and 3,390,773 tons of freight, receiving a revenue of 4,322,247 rubles from the former and of 15,427,346 rubles from the latter. For four years the total receipts and expenditure in rubles were:

| | 1908. | 1909. | 1910. | 1912. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Expenditure . . | 18,403,787 | 16,251,270 | 15,905,520 | 30,000,000 |
| Receipts . . . | 14,941,556 | 15,536,309 | 17,524,135 | 22,000,000 |
| Profit or loss . . | *— 3,462,231* | *— 714,961* | 1,618,615 | *— 8,000,000* |
| Approximate ratio of expenditure to receipts . . . | 124 per cent. | 105 per cent. | 91 per cent. | 136 per cent. |

Connected with the Chinese Eastern Railway, though not forming part of the system, is the *Tsitsihar Light Railway*, a metre-gauge line 17 miles long, connecting Angangki, on the main line, with the provincial capital. This railway has a capital of 284,758 taels in Chinese hands, and the construction, which began in September 1907 and was completed in August 1909, cost 241,283 taels.

(3) The *South Manchurian Railway Co.* was constituted on June 7, 1906, by ordinance of the Emperor of Japan, to operate the portion of the Chinese Eastern Railway taken over from the Russians, the Moukden–Antung line built by Japan during the war and to be converted in accordance with the Chinese agreement of the previous December, various branch lines, and a number of mining, industrial, and commercial undertakings connected therewith.

The main line from Changchun to Dairen (Dalny), taken over from the Chinese Eastern Railway Co., is 439 miles long. The original gauge of 5 ft. has apparently been altered, as the entire system now is said to have the standard gauge of 4 ft. 8½ in. The line was open to traffic as the South Manchurian Railway on April 1, 1907.

The Moukden–Antung branch, originally a light Decauville railway of 2½ ft. gauge, was reconstructed to the standard gauge to suit the Korean main line,

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with which it is connected at Wiju (Gishu) by an iron bridge, 3,180 ft. long, over the Yalu. It is 162 miles long and was finally opened after conversion on November 3, 1911. The concession appears to run from 1908, and the agreement of 1905 gave China the right to buy the line back at the end of fifteen years.

There are three minor branches connected with the main line. These are the Tashihkiao–Yingkow (Port Newchwang) line, 13½ miles; the Choushuitze–Port Arthur line, 31½ miles, by which Port Arthur is connected with the Dairen Railway; and a line of 34½ miles from Suchiatun, a station just south of Moukden, to the Fushun collieries east of that town. All three were originally narrow-gauge lines and were converted in May 1908. Of other branches, apparently not open for general traffic, one serves the Yentai colliery, south of Moukden, which is controlled like those at Fushun by the railway company; one runs from Suchiatun west to Suhukiapu and a few miles farther down the course of the Hun-ho; and one connects Lioshutun on the Bay of Talienwan opposite Dairen with the main line.

Two branches are in course of construction. One, 110 miles long, is to run from Kaiyuan, a station on the main line south of Changtu, due east to Hailungcheng. The latest reports indicate that this line may now be completed and that an extension northwards to Kirin is in contemplation. The other is to branch off from the main line at Shihpingkai, a station 120 miles north of Moukden between Changtu and Changchun, and to run to Chenchiatung on the Mongolian border, a distance of 52 miles, being continued thence for another 120 miles or so to Taonanfu. An agreement for a loan respecting this line was concluded between China and Japan in December 1915, and construction was begun in the following year. Another branch is projected from Kungchuling, between Shihpingkai and Changchun, to Itungchow, some 50 miles to the east.

The total length of the main line and branches of the South Manchurian Railway open to general traffic is

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680½ miles, all of standard gauge. In 1914 the rolling stock included 255 locomotives, 190 passenger coaches, and 2,903 goods wagons. The capital of the company is 200,000,000 yen, in a million shares of 200 yen (£20). Of this sum, half is owned by the Japanese Government, while of the remaining half, the issue of which was confined to Japanese and Chinese subjects, only 20,000,000 yen has been subscribed, and of this only 16,000,000 yen is paid up. The company, has, however, issued 5 per cent. debentures to the value of £14,000,000 in London. These are guaranteed by the Japanese Government, and £200,000 worth have already been redeemed. The following table shows the capital expenditure of the company from its inception up to March 31, 1913; it does not include the value of the line and plant taken over from the Chinese Eastern Railway Co.:

| | *Yen.* |
|---|---|
| Railway | 70,299,781 |
| Steamships | 3,385,357 |
| Electric plant | 4,833,697 |
| Gas-works | 1,406,540 |
| Harbour and wharves | 8,661,793 |
| Workshops | 5,915,122 |
| Hotels | 1,328,567 |
| Buildings | 9,699,523 |
| Land | 8,404,815 |
| Land improvements | 2,619,697 |
| Collieries | 10,498,592 |
| Total | 127,053,484 |

During the year ending March 31, 1914, the South Manchurian Railway carried 4,211,634 passengers and 6,477,325 tons of freight. The railway receipts amounted to 22,275,132 yen, and the expenditure to 7,913,948 yen, giving a ratio of expenditure to receipts of 35·52 per cent., while the total receipts of the company were 42,417,123 yen, and the total expenditure 35,249,844 yen, the ratio being 83·1 per cent.

The company enjoys a privileged position in being allowed to import the goods it requires free of customs duty, and in being relieved of all *likin* (transit) charges. By an agreement effected on May 25, 1915, the lease of the South Manchurian Railway was extended to



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99 years (i. e. to the year 2002 for the Dairen and to 2007 for the Antung section), while China's right of purchase at the end of 36 years was cancelled.

Closely connected with the South Manchurian Railway, though not owned by the company, is the *Kirin–Changchun Railway* running from Changchun, the meeting-point of the South Manchurian and Chinese Eastern systems, due east to Kirin, a distance of 80 miles. This line, which is of standard gauge (4 ft. 8½ in.), was begun in February 1910 and opened to traffic as far as Coran in January 1911 and to Kirin in October 1912; it operates in connexion with the South Manchurian Railway, but is under Chinese control.

There is some uncertainty regarding the financial position of this line. By the agreement of 1907 between China and Japan, already mentioned in connexion with the Hsinminting–Moukden Railway, the cost of construction of the Kirin line was estimated at £430,000 (4,300,000 yen), of which one-half was to be borrowed from the South Manchurian Railway Co. on the same onerous terms as were imposed in the case of the Hsinminting line. A loan of 2,150,000 yen (£215,000) was in fact advanced by Japan, and this was supplemented by 240,000 taels from the Official Bank of Kirin, the cost of construction being now estimated at 2,500,000 yen only. For the second half of 1914 the receipts amounted to 351,800 dollars and the expenditure to 353,700 dollars (ratio 100·54 per cent.), while for 1915 the provisional figures were, receipts 970,912 dollars, and expenditure 1,447,999 dollars (ratio 149·13 per cent.). The treaty of May 25, 1915, provided for a revision of the terms of the original loan, and by a further agreement between China and Japan, dated March 2, 1916, the entire control of the line passed to the latter Power. In connexion with this agreement it is worth noting that a Japanese loan of 6,500,000 dollars has lately been raised in respect of this line.[1] Japan thus gains control of the fertile wheat-growing plain

[1] See the *Economist*, July 20, 1918, p. 75, quoting the *Shanghai Gazette*.

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of the upper Sungari. It is in contemplation eventually to extend the line for a distance of about 240 miles to Hunchun near the Korean frontier, where it would connect with the projected railway along the east coast of Korea, the northern section of which has already been constructed. This extension was to have been a joint Sino-Japanese enterprise; how it is affected by the agreement of 1916 is not stated.

*Railway Projects.*—A few lines in contemplation or in course of construction have been already mentioned in connexion with the main railway systems. It remains here to touch on certain more ambitious projects.

One which has been a good deal discussed was for a line to be built by British contractors from Hsinminting to Fakumen (Fakuting). This project Japan vetoed, relying on the protocol to the treaty of 1905, by which China undertook not to build any line that would compete with the South Manchurian Railway, and, as against Great Britain, on the Railway Agreement of 1899, by which Great Britain bound herself not to seek for her subjects any railway concession north of the Great Wall in return for a similar undertaking on the part of Russia with respect to the Yangtzekiang valley. The dispute was eventually settled by China undertaking, by a treaty dated September 1, 1909, not to build the Fakumen Railway without previous agreement with Japan.

Elaborate proposals, emanating from the United States, were put forward for linking up northern Manchuria and the Siberian Railway with the south. Of various alternatives the most modest was for a line of some 300 miles direct from Aigun to Harbin, while another contemplated a line of 500–600 miles from Khailar, a station 100 miles east of Manchouli, to Chinchow on the North China Railway. The most serious apparently was an Anglo-American scheme for a railway from Aigun, *via* Tsitsihar, to Chinchow. This was to pass through Taonanfu in eastern Mongolia, whither a line from Shihpingkai on the South Manchurian Railway is



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already in course of construction, and to be in connexion with the ice-free harbour of Hulutao, just south of Chinchow. Negotiations took place in January 1910 and a preliminary agreement was reached, but further discussion was suspended owing to representations by Russia that it disturbed the plans for the defence of her frontier, and by Japan, who objected to an associated proposal to neutralize all Manchurian railways.

Late in 1913 negotiations were in progress between China and Japan for the construction by the latter of a network of railways in southern Manchuria, but so far nothing appears to have come of them beyond the agreement of 1915 for a loan in respect of the Shihping-kai–Chenchiatung line.

On March 28, 1916, an agreement was concluded between the Chinese Government and the Russo-Asiatic Bank respecting the construction of a line of about 460 miles from Harbin, *via* Mergen and Aigun, to Blagoveschensk (where it would connect with the projected and possibly already completed branch joining that town with the Amur Railway), and also of a branch from Mergen to Tsitsihar (or presumably Angangki), a distance of between 160 and 200 miles. For the construction of this line a loan of £5,000,000 was to be floated after the conclusion of the European War.

The railways of Manchuria, the total length of which appears to be at present about 2,180 miles, are inadequate to the full development of the country, but the more pressing need is the construction of roads to act as feeders to the lines that already exist. There is no doubt that the production of the provinces could be greatly increased if the means of transport were improved.

### (*d*) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

*Posts.*—The Imperial Chinese Post Office grew up under the Imperial Maritime Customs and was formally recognized by an Imperial edict of March 20, 1896.

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An order was passed on May 10, 1910, that the Post Office should be placed under the Ministry of Posts and Communications, and the change was actually made in May 1911. The Post Office supplements the Ichan, or Imperial Government Courier Service, and the Minchu, or native postal agencies (*hongs*), which now transmit and receive, through the Imperial Post, all mail matter entrusted to them.

The head office of the Imperial post in Manchuria is at Newchwang, and there are branch offices at Chinchow, Wafangtien, Kaiping, Liaoyang, Moukden, Changchun, Kirin, and other places.

Moreover, Japan in the south and to a more limited extent Russia in the two northern provinces maintain their own post offices and exercise postal rights.

In 1908 Japan made proposals for a postal convention. She claimed the permanent right to carry mails, without reference to the Chinese Imperial Post Office, on the North China Railway between Peking and Newchwang and between the Japanese post offices and other Chinese railways in Manchuria. Further she required China to treat her own mails to Manchuria as foreign, paying the Japanese railway transit rates in accordance with the Postal Union tariff. Lastly, it was demanded that Japanese mail steamers and launches should have the right to ply on Manchurian inland waters and to charge Postal Union rates for any Chinese mails carried. The Chinese Government could not assent to these demands, and the negotiations fell through.

*Telegraphs.*—In Manchuria there are 10,288 miles of telegraph owned by the Chinese Government. The principal line is that from Shanhaikwan to Aigun, which connects with the Russian system at Blagoveschensk and links up Shanhaikwan, Newchwang, Liaoyang, Moukden, Kirin, Petuna, Tsitsihar, Mergen, and Aigun. From Kirin a branch runs east to Ninguta and thence south-east to Hunchun and connects with the Primorskaya system and Vladivostok, while from Liaoyang another line runs south-east by the Motien-

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ling pass and Fenghwangcheng to Antung and the Yalu valley.

By a convention made in 1908 Japan agreed, in return for a payment of 50,000 yen, to hand over to China all the Japanese telegraph lines in Manchuria outside her railway zone and not to extend her telephone system without the consent of China. China on her part agreed for a period of fifteen years to place at the disposal of the Japanese Government special telegraph wires to be worked by Japanese operators between the treaty ports, Antung, Newchwang, Liaoyang, Moukden, and Tiehling, and the Japanese railways.

*Telephones.*—Harbin has a telephone system under the control of the Chinese Eastern Railway, and Changchun a system controlled by the South Manchurian Railway. In southern Manchuria 14 of the principal towns have telephone services. Dairen has a trunk communication with all places in Manchuria where there is a Japanese post office. There also appear to be other trunk lines between Zingkow and Liaoyang and between Port Arthur and Tiehling.

## (2) External

### (*a*) *Ports*

The principal ports of Manchuria are Dairen, Newchwang, and Antung. Dairen is by far the most important, owing to its being open all the year round and to the superior accommodation it offers to shipping of any size. Newchwang is ice-bound for several months and lies some distance up the Liao river, which presents certain obstacles to navigation. Antung is on the Yalu, which is also frozen in winter, and only steamers of comparatively light draught can pass up to the town. (The figures of shipping for 1913, 1914, and 1916 will be found in Appendix I.)

*Dairen* (Russian, *Dalny*; population in 1916, 46,570) is approached through a channel sufficiently wide and

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deep to admit steamers at any time of the day or night and at any state of the tide. Protection from eastern gales is provided by stone and concrete breakwaters, behind which there lies an expanse of 800 acres of smooth water, which is continually dredged. The port is provided with granite wharves at right angles to the stone-faced foreshore, capable of accommodating the largest ocean-going steamers, and also with wharves of granite-faced concrete, at which steamers drawing up to 22 feet can be berthed. These wharves are nowhere less than 350 feet wide, and are lighted with electric light and provided with steam cranes, while the South Manchurian Railway runs alongside them. There are thirty warehouses, covering 25 acres, available for cargo.

Dairen is provided with electric light and tramways, waterworks, and a modern drainage system, and in the central parts the streets are macadamized and well lighted. Since July 1907 it has been a free port, and imports are only liable to duty on passing out of the leased territory.

The exports from Dairen were valued in 1916 at £9,101,375, and the imports at £7,511,324. In the same year, of the tonnage entering and clearing 83 per cent. was Japanese, 7½ per cent. British, and under 5 per cent. Chinese, that of other nations being negligible. Dairen is a general emporium for all commodities exported from and imported into Manchuria; and the South Manchurian Railway, by the offer of favourable rates and improved accommodation, endeavours as far as possible to attract trade thither. It has, indeed, been suggested by a competent observer[1] that the future of Dairen depends more upon the development of the territory along the railway than on the diversion of trade from other ports. This view, however, is hardly borne out by recent statistics, though the conditions arising through the European War may to some extent vitiate these as a guide to the future.

[1] Quoted by Lawton, *Empires of the Far East*, p. 1286.

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So long as Russian control lasted, the commercial possibilities of the port and railway were neglected. The Japanese, however, have taken pains to develop them to the utmost.

*Newchwang* [1] (population, about 70,000) has been a treaty port since 1858. Compared with Dairen it possesses the advantage of having been longer established and of being connected with the interior by two competent lines of railway, but it is handicapped by being ice-bound for four months in the year and by its situation fourteen miles up the Liao river, the mouth of which is obstructed by a bar. In 1909 the Chamber of Commerce recommended, and the authorities agreed to, a 1 per mil. tax on imports and exports and a small tonnage tax on incoming vessels, the funds thus raised to be devoted to dredging the bar and embanking the channel.

Newchwang is a port of general trade for the south-west of Manchuria. In 1916, of the tonnage entering and clearing, 45 per cent. was Japanese, 32½ per cent. British, and 15½ per cent. Chinese, that of other nations being considerably less. The imports of foreign commodities for 1916 were valued at £1,534,945 and of native commodities at £1,136,200; the exports for the same year were valued at £2,349,582.

Newchwang has suffered in the past from differential railway rates in favour of Dairen. The rates have now been made equal, though they remain disproportionate to the distance travelled.

A tract of land between the eastern extremity of

[1] Not to be confused with the old Newchwang City, said to have once been on the sea, but now an unimportant town 30 miles inland on a small tributary of the Liao. Newchwang itself is now 14 miles from the mouth of the river, and the port has been moved to Yingkow, sometimes called Port Newchwang, 10 miles lower down. Newchwang, however, remains the Treaty Port and Maritime Customs Station; Yingkow is 'open to trade'. The South Manchurian Railway runs to the eastern bank of the Liao at Yingkow; the North China Railway ran to Newchwang, but has been extended to the port. There is a service of junks between Yingkow and Newchwang.

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Yingkow and the Niuchiatun quarter has been included in the South Manchurian Railway zone since the construction of the branch from Tashihkiao to Newchwang; a fact which will probably enable the Japanese to enjoy in future an increasing share in the trade and shipping of the port.

As Newchwang is closed for so long a period by ice, an ice-free harbour with depths of 18 to 30 ft. has been constructed at Hulutao between Shanhaikwan and Kowpangtzu; Hulutao is connected by a branch with the Peking–Moukden main line.

*Antung* (population in 1916, 32,700), situated some 25 miles up the Yalu river, is the trade centre of a district extending north-east to the head-waters of the Sungari, north to Hailungcheng, and south to the timber mart and port of Tatungkow, and including towns on the Korean side of the Yalu basin. Antung is connected with Wiju (Gishu) on the opposite side of the river and with the Korean Railway by a new twelve-span bridge of steel; it is in railway communication with Chemulpo, Seoul, and Fusan in Korea, and with Moukden in Manchuria, and steamers run regularly to Chefoo, Tientsin, Dairen, Chemulpo, Fusan, Moji, Kobe, and Shanghai.

The largest steamers have to anchor at Tasarugi Island, at the mouth of the river, and only those drawing less than ten feet of water can pass up to Antung. Goods from ships lying at the Tasarugi anchorage are conveyed up the river by lighters. Like the Liao the Yalu is ice-bound for four months in the year.

A commodious tract of land with a river frontage is being prepared to serve as a trading settlement for foreigners, but the Japanese already occupy the most advantageous position. Seeing that they control the railway communications, have annexed the neighbouring country of Korea, and have persuaded the Chinese to share with them the mining and lumbering enterprises in the Yalu valley, it is to be expected that they will before long monopolize the trade and shipping of the Yalu region.

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The chief trade of Antung is in silk and timber; no less than 16 per cent. of all the timber passing through the Chinese Imperial Customs is handled at this port. In 1916 the total value of the imports of Antung was £3,352,300 and of the exports £1,434,974. In the same year, of the tonnage entering and clearing, 47·6 per cent. was Japanese, 26·4 per cent. Chinese, and 26 per cent. British, no other nations being represented.

The smaller ports and anchorages of Manchuria are described above, pp. 3–5.

### (*b*) *Shipping Lines*

The South Manchurian Railway maintains a service twice weekly between Dairen and Shanghai. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha has three regular lines touching at Dairen—one from Yokohama fortnightly, one from Kobe weekly, and the third from Kobe *via* Korean ports monthly. The Osaka Shosen Kaisha also has three services connecting Dairen and Japan—one from Yokohama fortnightly, one from Osaka twice a week, and the third from Nagasaki weekly. The first-mentioned line of each of these two Japanese companies is a so-called 'free-navigation' line, and receives no subsidy from the Japanese Government. The remaining four lines are subsidized and are subject to Japanese Government control. A joint Sino-Japanese company carries on a daily service between Dairen and Chefoo.

Newchwang is connected with Shanghai by a service of steamers every alternate day, and with Lungkou and Tientsin every third day. These lines are maintained by the China Commercial Steam Navigation Company and the China Merchants' Steam Navigation Company, both Shanghai concerns. The Nippon Yusen Kaisha has a weekly service to Shimonoseki, Kobe, and Osaka.

Antung is connected with Shanghai by a service of the China Navigation Co. twice weekly, and steamers

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also run to Chefoo daily, to Tientsin three times a week, to Dairen twice a week, and to Kobe once a fortnight.

### (c) *Telegraphic and Wireless Communication*

There is a submarine cable between Dairen and Chefoo, the joint property of Japan and China, each country operating its own end. A second cable connects Dairen directly with Sasebo on the west coast of Japan.

On the headland of Takushan opposite Dairen across the Bay of Talienwan, there is a wireless installation with a day range of 650 nautical miles and a night range of 2,000.

## (B) INDUSTRY

### (1) Labour

Though little more than a fifth of the total area available for cultivation in Manchuria is actually cultivated, even for this the labour supply is inadequate. According to estimates which are now eighteen years old, some 30,000 labourers were yearly imported from Shantung, returning thither after the harvest.[1] There is also a large immigration from the neighbouring province of Chihli, but, as these immigrants travel by land, there are no means of estimating their numbers. In 1907 Mr. Yamanobe (see below, p. 66) put the permanent yearly immigration from Shantung and neighbouring parts at no less than 20,000, a figure which, if correct, would account for the admitted increase in agricultural production.

There is profitable employment in Manchuria on the land, and in mining and connected industries for

[1] Petty traders and others, to the number of 5,000 in each year, also arrive at Newchwang from Shantung just before the freezing of the river at the beginning of December and stay in Manchuria till the end of March.

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a great deal more labour than is obtainable. The mines and connected industries round Moukden employ 22,000 men, of whom 20,000 are Chinese and 8,000 actual miners. The ordinary labourer earns about 30 kopecks or 8*d.* a day.[1]

The South Manchurian Railway Co. has the management of 5,488 acres in the railway zone of the leased territory, and of 40,322 acres along the lines outside it; this land is reserved for Japanese settlers, and the company propose, by the building of dwelling-houses, schools, and hospitals, to do all in their power to encourage the development of its resources.

### (2) Agriculture

In Shengking (Fengtien) most of the arable land lying within easy reach of a railway is already cultivated. In 1912 Mr. Lawton estimated that ten million acres were under cultivation, but of these only 5,835,000 acres were sufficiently near a railway for produce to be marketed at a reasonable rate. Of this area 150,000 acres were under beans. The provinces which have most arable land favourably situated but still awaiting cultivation are Kirin and Heilungkiang, since the Chinese Government, afraid of complications with Russia, long discouraged immigration into the northern parts from the more densely populated south. Moreover, much of the eastern regions of Kirin and Heilungkiang were formerly reserved as an Imperial hunting ground, and settlement there was prohibited. It was estimated in 1912 that only half the area capable of tillage in Kirin had been brought under cultivation. The fertile basins of the Sungari and Nonni should develop into immensely productive wheat-producing areas, if sufficient railway facilities are provided. New land is already coming into cultivation between Mergen and Sansing, a district where 6,665,000 acres are available, only a quarter of which were tilled a few years ago.

It is estimated that in 1909 only 8,320,000 acres

[1] Whigham, *Manchuria and Korea*, p. 128.

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in Manchuria were under cultivation, and the average harvest was divided approximately as follows:[1]

| | *Bushels.* |
|---|---|
| Kaoliang (tall millet) | 43,670,000 |
| Millet (spiked) | 42,230,875 |
| Beans | 33,695,375 |
| Wheat | 30,420,125 |
| Barley, buckwheat, Indian corn, &c. | 27,194,500 |
| | 177,210,875 |

The following forecast of the future of Manchurian agriculture was made by Mr. Putnam Weale and quoted by Mr. Lawton in 1912: 'Chinese agriculture in Northern Manchuria will soon not be merely confined to winning over to the mattock and the plough the whole of these 30 million acres [on the Sungari and Nonni], it will steadily invade the vast area of north-eastern Mongolia—the Inner Mongolia of the geographers—and will bring all the rich grass country lying on the east of the Gobi desert under painstaking cultivation. Already it is calculated that the Chinese agricultural belt is advancing on the Mongols and their wandering flocks at the rate of thirty *li* or twelve miles a year. In fifteen or twenty years the spade and mattock will have captured millions of acres and bound them tight to the Chinese system in bounteous crops; and much of the harvest of these fields will be available for export. Thus a wheat-belt, contemptuous of political and geographical labelling, will grow up in these latitudes to be almost as remarkable as the Canadian North-West or the ever-expanding west Siberian grain districts; and this belt will be exploited in times of stress by those who, without possessing any legitimate right of eminent domain, have their money-bags lying ready and their soldiers in the immediate background.'[2]

### (*a*) *Products of Commercial Value*

*Oil-seeds.*—The chief exports from Manchuria are soya beans and their products, bean-cake and bean-oil,

[1] Lawton, *op. cit.*, p. 1132.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 1122.

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the quantities passing through the Chinese Maritime Customs at the eleven Manchurian stations being (in piculs of 133⅓ lb.): [1]

| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Beans | 4,220,699 | 6,571,762 | 4,668,714 |
| Beans and peas | 4,253,019 | 4,092,963 | 4,596,076 |
| Bean-cake | 13,608,742 | 12,072,685 | 14,888,872 |
| Bean-oil | 742,400 | 736,149 | 1,377,256 |

Some 380,000 tons of beans were also shipped from Vladivostok in 1916, a decrease of 28 per cent. on the previous year due to lack of steamer accommodation. Of this 140,000 tons went to Europe to feed mills in England, Holland, and Denmark, while the remainder was pressed at Dairen and in Japan, whence bean-cake and bean-oil are shipped to Europe and America. The quantities sent to England appear to be very small. In 1916 there were four Japanese bean-mills in Dairen, and a large mill for dealing with soya beans has recently been established at Vernon in California.

In China and Japan the soya bean is largely used to make *tufu* or bean-cake, an article of universal consumption in China, also a kind of flour, and the paste called 'soy', used as a relish with meat, fish, and vegetables. Bean-cake is also used as a cattle food, being cheaper and more nutritious than cotton-seed oilcake, and as a fertilizer.

Bean-oil is used in the manufacture of soap, margarine, and candles. When refined and deodorized it is employed as a substitute for cotton-seed oil or linseed oil, or even for the cheaper kinds of olive oil, and is said to be the best vegetable oil for making paints. It is also used in the manufacture of varnish, printing ink, and lubricating oils, and forms the basis of a composition for waterproofing umbrellas.

Other oil-seeds growing in Manchuria are *ricinus* (castor oil), *sesamum*, and cotton.

*Cereals.*—The most important cereal is the tall millet

[1] All trade statistics are from the *China Maritime Customs Reports* and the *China Year Book for 1916*. For further details of exports, see pp. 65–6, 83–6; cf. also the *Note on Import and Export Statistics*, pp. 80–2.

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or *kaoliang*. The grains are boiled and eaten as food or distilled for spirit; the stalks are woven into mats and used for fencing and bridging and to form the walls of houses. Spiked millet, maize, and wheat also bulk largely in the export returns, and are used for food. The following export figures for grain handled at the Manchurian ports or customs stations afford an idea of the relative importance of the crops (the quantities are given in piculs): [1]

| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Kaoliang . . . . . | 1,048,200 | 241,908 | 389,434 |
| Millet . . . . . | 1,479,882 | 794,044 | 239,449 |
| Maize . . . . . | 218,335 | 559,653 | 143,859 |
| Wheat . . . . . | 1,843,145 | 1,965,119 | 1,210,337 |
| Total cereals . . . . | 4,844,729 | 3,773,963 | 1,945,848 |
| Flour . . . . . | 242,264 | 242,973 | 419,029 |

The production of wheat in Manchuria is at present estimated at about 10,000,000 bushels, but it might be enormously increased. Most of it is ground in the flour-mills erected at Harbin during the Russo-Japanese War.

*Ginseng*.—The most important of the medicinal plants grown in Manchuria is ginseng (*Panax ginseng*), from the fleshy root of which the Chinese prepare a tonic medicine. The value of this is much disputed, but the drug is in great demand, and when Korea paid tribute to China a portion was paid in ginseng. It grows wild in Korea, especially on the south-eastern slopes of the Changpai-shan range, and also in the forests of the Kirin province. The wild root, according to Sir H. E. M. James, sells for £10 or £12 an ounce, and large specimens fetch fancy prices. When cultivated it is only worth from 4*s*. to 5*s*. an ounce, but it is largely grown both in Japan and in the Liaotung district, south of Moukden. The clarified ginseng, which is imported into China from the United States, is made from another species (*Panax quinquefolium*), which grows on the slopes of the Appalachian Mountains.

Ginseng is found in the Newchwang customs returns only, the exports being (in catties of $1\frac{1}{3}$ lb.):

[1] Cf. p. 46, footnote.

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| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Chinese | 1,670 | 1,406 | 2,436 |
| Wild | 615 | 328 | 613 |
| Beard and refuse | 623 | 645 | 523 |

*Fibrous Plants.*—The plants grown for fibre are jute, true hemp, and *Abutilon* hemp. Sacking and coarse cloth are manufactured from the true hemp, and both hemps are used to make rope and cordage. The leaves of the *Abutilon* hemp are also used to adulterate tobacco.

The exports of fibre are negligible, but a certain quantity of hemp-seed leaves Suifenho and Dairen, the amounts in recent years being 451,787 piculs in 1913, 279,400 in 1914, and 196,872 in 1916.

*Tobacco.*—Next to beans and hemp, tobacco bulks most largely in the trade of the interior, but a great deal of it is consumed in the country. The exports of tobacco from Manchurian 'ports' amounted to 15,019 piculs in 1913, 11,926 in 1914, and 16,441 in 1916.

*Opium* is grown largely in the Heilungkiang province and finds its chief mart at Changchun. It is so extensively smuggled as hardly to appear in the customs returns. There is a considerable import of Persian opium at Dairen, presumably for the use of the Japanese in the leased territory.

*Silk.*—The most valuable of the animal products of Manchuria is raw wild silk, the produce of a silk moth which feeds on the oak (*Quercus mongolica*) and is found in a district stretching south from near Moukden to the sea, and bounded on the west and east by the Liao and Yalu rivers. Manchuria provides the raw material of 61 per cent. of the silk produced in China, as the wild silk is used in the manufacture of the Tussore silk of commerce. It also produces 36 per cent. of the cocoons used in the manufacture of silk in China.

Silk appears at the southern ports only, namely Newchwang, Dairen, Antung, and Tatungkow, recent figures being (in piculs):

| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Silk, raw wild | 18,293 | 15,289 | 13,926 |
| Pongee | 89 | 123 | 102 |
| Cocoons, wild | 168,158 | 105,199 | 71,951 |
| Cocoons, wild, refuse | 371 | 285 | 1,110 |
| Waste | 13,403 | 14,056 | 13,741 |
| Silk-worms, dried | 2,746 | 4,101 | 5,687 |

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*Bee-keeping* is carried on upon a commercial scale; some families own as many as 500–1,000 beehives. The total produce of Manchuria in honey is estimated at 2,500 tons annually, valued at £75,000, of which a portion is exported through the southern ports.

*Stock-farming* is carried on extensively in Manchuria, and almost every peasant keeps horses, cows, sheep, or pigs. There are besides many stock-farmers regularly keeping several hundred head of cattle, pigs, and horses.

Cattle are not used for draught purposes, but for dairy and slaughter only; excellent butter is produced in North Manchuria. Manchurian horses are used for transport and farm work; they are small but hardy, tractable, and capable of prolonged work. Pigs are kept in great numbers, being largely fed on the refuse of millet distilleries, and there is an important export of pork to northern China. The bristles are also valuable, 3,296 piculs having been exported from Dairen and Newchwang in 1913, 4,492 in 1914, and 3,926 in 1916.

*Furs and Skins.*—There is an important trade in furs with its centre in Moukden. Dog and goat skins are also exported, there being special dog farms in connexion with the industry.

Another animal product exported consists of young *deer horns* in the velvet (*panty*). The Chinese macerate the bone and dried skin in alcohol and produce from it a restorative medicine resembling hartshorn.

*Musk* is also an article of export, the musk deer being found in the forests of Kirin.

### (*b*) *Agricultural Methods*

The Chinaman has little aptitude for pastoral pursuits, and makes small use of the virgin grass on the hills to the east of the railway, which might pasture large herds of cattle or sheep. On the other hand, he is one of the most skilful cultivators in the world, and Sir H. E. M. James describes how he 'gets up at two in the morning, works with hardly any intermission till dark, and then goes to bed at once, so as to rise



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again early next day. The result is marvellous. Instead of the seed being scattered broadcast, it is carefully planted in ridges at regular intervals apart, and the cultivator is for ever weeding, hoeing, or irrigating, so that each head of grain develops like a prize plant.' With a view to making the best possible use of these admirable qualities by applying the methods of western science a Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce has been recently established at Peking.

Nevertheless, few, if any, modern improvements in method appear to have entered into the agricultural practice of the Manchurian farmer. The soil is very lightly worked and artificial manures are unknown. The result is, in general, exhausting to the soil, and the peasant lives from hand to mouth. A bad harvest cripples him so much that he never reaches in the course of years the position of being able to afford to improve his methods.

### (*c*) *Forestry*

Manchuria, as its name in the local dialect implies, is a heavily wooded country. Its timber regions consist still very largely of unexploited primaeval forest. The principal trees of commercial value are pine, of which there are several varieties, oak, walnut, willow, birch, elm, and aspen. In the Changpai-shan forest zone there is an ample supply of old and well-grown pine 200 feet in height and 7 to 8 feet in circumference.

The timber districts, arranged according to the transportation routes (river and rail) and the principal lumber markets, are as follows:

For the North Manchurian markets: (1) the Great Khingan range, between Khailar and Tsitsihar on the Chinese Eastern Railway; (2) the Changkwansai range and the district west of it; (3) the banks of the main stream of the Sungari river from Harbin to its junction with the Amur; (4) the slopes of the Little Khingan range; (5) the banks of the Hurka river to its junction with the Sungari; (6) the western slope of the Hsiao-

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pashan range as far as the upper reaches of the Lalin River.

For the South Manchurian markets: (1) the banks of the Yalu and its tributaries; (2) the upper reaches of the Sungari river south of Kirin city; (3) the banks of the Taitze-ho between Pensihu and Liaoyang; (4) the banks of the Hun-ho between Hsingching and Moukden.

For the Maritime Province and Korean markets: (1) the valley of the Tumen; (2) the banks of the Suifen river and the district between it and the Chinese Eastern Railway.

The southern forests are the more fully exploited. Some 30,000 lumbermen are said to be employed in the Yalu, Taitzu, and Hun valleys. On the upper Sungari 3,000 men are employed; in the Khingan about 1,200, and about 1,000 each in the Hulan, Lalin, and Hurka valleys. In northern Manchuria a great deal of birch is cut for fuel-wood and is used on the railways and for household heating.

The Chinese Eastern Railway is a large forest owner and has a special forestry department. An important concern on the Yalu is the Chinese-Japanese Timber Co. The bulk of the timber is marketed through individuals known as *muchangs*, who combine the functions of middlemen and wholesale dealers. The muchangs finance the woodmen, paying their timber-tax and advancing them money for tools, stores, &c.

The Chinese Government has formed a Bureau of Forestry in Peking to promote afforestation and to control cutting with a view to preventing waste, which in some parts has destroyed much timber.

The chief timber mart is said to have been Tatung-kow, but that port has lost most of its trade and no timber now appears in its export returns. Timber is mentioned, however, at five other 'ports':

| *Suifenho* (exports):— | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Beams, softwood, sq. ft. . . . . | 67,024 | 176,639 | 3,365,165 |
| Planks, softwood, sq. ft. . . . . | 1,785,231 | 1,720,550 | 1,480,859 |
| Poles, pieces . . . . . | — | 14,550 | 178 |



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| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Hunchun* (exports) :— | | | |
| Beams, softwood, sq. ft. . . . | —[1] | 4,589,691 | 1,824,313 |
| Piles and poles . . . . . | — | — | —[2] |
| Planks, softwood, sq. ft. . . . | —[3] | — | 5,745 |
| *Antung* (exports) :— | | | |
| Beams, hardwood, pieces . . . | 12,765 | 29,900 | 19,077 |
| Beams, softwood, pieces . . . | 276,759 | 339,047 | 569,997 |
| Planks, sq. ft. . . . . | 6,305,744 | 2,899,031 | 5,696,386 |
| Poles, pieces . . . . . | 18,848 | 24,937 | 64,666 |
| *Dairen* (exports from Manchuria into leased territory) :— | | | |
| Timber of all kinds, piculs . . . | 44,928 | 54,161 | 279,023 |
| *Newchwang* (exports through native customs) :— | | | |
| Beams and planks, pieces . . . | 1,334 | 2,246 | 610 |
| Poles, pieces . . . . . | 439 | 363 | 326 |

[1] Value, 40,384 Haikwan taels. [2] Value, 624 Hk. taels. [3] Value, 4,547 Hk. taels.

### (*d*) *Land Tenure*

The land in Manchuria is held by peasant proprietors. The land-tax is the great source of revenue, and the property of the temples is the only class of land exempt. Manchu holdings, however, pay less tax than Chinese, and in out-of-the-way places pay none at all. Chinamen pay about a shilling an acre, but the acre is a unit of assessment, not of area, and varies in size according to the quality of the land. An acre of first-class land is equivalent in size to an English acre, but an acre of middling land is double, and of inferior land three times the size.

Any man can secure as much waste land as he chooses to pay stamp duty upon, and the stamp duty is very light. In the Shengking province the land is officially measured and pays full assessment after three years. North of the Sungari the immigrant has to pay about 2*s*. 6*d*. an acre on taking up fresh land. He then gets the land free for five years and afterwards pays 5*d*. to 6*d*. an acre. The annual tax is payable in the eighth month, that is after harvest, but the farmer can put off payment till the tenth month, when failure to pay is followed by a fine. If arrears accumulate for six years, the land reverts to the State. Lands which from natural causes have produced less

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than sufficient to support the owner are, upon petition, exempted from taxation for the year.

Manchu land is entailed, and only so much of it can be sold as is sufficient for the site of a house or a grave. It is often let to Chinese, who get virtual possession of it on mortgage for a third of its value. Rent-free land is often granted to Manchu officials as part of their salaries.

There is in general free power of sale as regards land in the occupation of Chinamen, but five per cent. of the price has to be paid to the magistrate who registers the sale and stamps the deed.[1]

### (3) Fisheries

In North Manchuria fishing on the rivers is only carried on as a subsidiary occupation and the catch is consumed locally. In South Manchuria the sea-fisheries have a considerable value. Sea-bream, cod, and hairtail are the most abundant fish.

In 1909 some 3,000 junks and other vessels employing 18,000 men were engaged permanently in the coast fisheries; the fleet is strengthened by seasonal visits of several hundred boats from Japan. The catch is valued at about £80,000 annually, of which about three-eighths falls to the share of Japanese fishermen.

Fish is a principal article of diet among the Chinese, but after supplying local wants there is an export as shown by the following table:

| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| From Newchwang (Maritime and Native Customs):— | *Piculs.* | *Piculs.* | *Piculs.* |
| Dried and salt fish | 2,698 | 2,209 | 4,093 |
| Dried prawns and shrimps | 5,770 | 7,598 | 7,895 |
| Prawn and shrimp skins | 2,953 | 4,100 | 6,197 |
| From Tatungkow:— | | | |
| Dried prawns and shrimps | 129 | 147 | — |
| From Manchouli:— | | | |
| Fresh fish | 48,263 | 65,900 | 55,541 |
| From Dairen (including junk traffic):— | | | |
| Dried, salt, and fresh fish | 8,134 | 13,018 | 24,367 |
| From Manchuria into leased territory:— | | | |
| Dried and salt fish | — | 501 | 1,161 |
| Fish and fishery products | 1,078 | 1,241 | 2,352 |

[1] James, *The Long White Mountain*, pp. 161–3.

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## (4) Minerals

Iron is found at Tiehling, which means 'Iron Range', and at Pensihu, where it occurs in conjunction with coal, while copper is found at Tunghwasien and Maoerhshan near the Korean border due east of Moukden, as well as at Pensihu, Tienpaoshan, Chaimachi, and Shisuitze. Lead, silica, potters' clay, and salt also occur. But the principal minerals worked are coal, asbestos, gold and soda.

The *coal* is chiefly the product of the Fushun collieries north-east of Moukden, with much smaller quantities from the Yentai collieries close to the main line between Moukden and Liaoyang, and the Pensihu collieries east of the latter town, on or near the Antung line. The Fushun collieries are believed to contain some 500,000,000 tons of coal, and to be capable of an average daily output of 5,000 tons; their total production in 1914 was 840,000 tons, which was very greatly increased in 1916. The Pensihu mines are estimated to contain some 150,000,000 tons, and have a daily output of 200; those at Yentai yield about 100 tons daily. Other coal-fields are at Niusintai, Wuhutsui, Liangsi, Naitzeshan, and in the Hunchun district. In all about 30 mines are working.

The Fushun coal is rich in bitumen and gives strong heat; it makes excellent boiler and bunker fuel and is a good gas coal. The Pensihu and Yentai coals are more difficult to ignite, but are very lasting. They coke well and are suitable for briquette-making. The Fushun coal is largely used by steamers calling at Manchurian ports and is exported as far south as Hongkong, as well as to Harbin. The other coals are mainly consumed locally.

The following are the amounts of coal exported in recent years:

| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Tons.* | *Tons.* | *Tons.* |
| From Manchuria into the leased territory . | 1,195,204 | 1,218,584 | 837,385 |
| From Dairen (including junk traffic) . . | 1,011,152 | 990,823 | 833,581 |
| From Newchwang (through Maritime and Native Customs) . . . . . | 307,583 | 338,019 | 83,458 |
| From Antung . . . . . | 140,549 | 145,750 | 207,661 |

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The value of the coal exported from Dairen in 1916 was 4 Haikwan taels (13*s.* 3¼*d.*) a ton.

*Iron.*—The only spot in Manchuria where iron is mined on a commercial scale is at Pensihu, where the Pensihu Coal and Iron-mining Company (under the South Manchurian Railway Company) had one blast furnace completed in 1913 and two others proposed or in course of construction. A yearly production of 50,000 to 100,000 tons is expected when the projected works are in full going order. The whole of this output is ear-marked for the use of the State-owned Edamitsu Iron-works in Japan. Operations are also carried on at Lishan and Aushan, near Liaoyang, and at Tiehling, while deposits are known to exist near Haicheng, Fushun, Hsiuyen, Kirin, and Sansing.

*Asbestos* is found at Kwantien, 45 miles north-east of Antung, and can be produced at a cost of 2*s.* 6*d.* a pound. The manner of working it is, however, antiquated and the cost of production could probably be largely reduced by the introduction of more modern methods.

*Gold* is found at Moho on the right bank of the Amur, the placers lying in the bed of a small tributary of a river which joins the Amur below Albazin; on the banks of the Sungari and of the Nonni, which enjoys the title of 'the Golden'; on the Arracan, a tributary of the Argun; on both banks of the Hurka; on the Tumen; and at Tunghwasien and Huaijen near the Yalu, respectively east and south-east of Moukden. All these are alluvial deposits and the dust is recovered by primitive washing methods. Gold is said to be worked in ten localities and to exist in about forty others in the province of Shengking, but the reports are often very unreliable and there are great difficulties in the way of exploitation.

Gold is exported to some extent from the eastern and southern ports, the net movements of dust and bars being recently as follows:

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| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| To Korea and Japan . . . . . | 5,530 | 37,453 | 741,084 |
| To Shanghai . . . . . | 47,920 | 32,700 | 901,947 |
| Total, Hk. taels . . . . . | 53,450 | 70,153 | 1,643,031 |
| Total, £ . . . . . | 8,076 | 9,582 | 272,414 |

How much of this, however, is actually produced in Manchuria is doubtful, seeing that a certain amount of gold bullion, as well as coin and silver, appears to pass backwards and forwards in the course of trade. Moreover, the export figures may include some gold produced beyond the confines of Manchuria, since the Russian Government is said to have bought gold compulsorily from the Siberian miners at less than the market price, a practice conducive to smuggling. Gold was formerly exported from Newchwang, and the figures for that port for 1898 and 1899—i. e. 1,035,510 Hk. taels (£149,394) and 1,357,063 Hk. taels (£204,266) respectively—suggest that there has been no great increase in production.[1]

*Soda* is found in veins in the marshes along the course of the Nonni and Sungari, the richest region being that lying between Tsitsihar and the lower course of the Sungari. It is marketed in Tsitsihar, Changchun, and Kirin for use in the raw silk industry. About 130 tons are sold annually in Kirin alone.

*Lime* is produced in great quantities in a district about 50 miles east of Harbin. Some 600 kilns are working and annually produce 650,000 tons, which find a ready market in Harbin.

### (5) Manufactures

So far Manchuria has only developed manufacture on a small scale.

The first impulse was given by the Russo-Japanese War, when a number of flour-mills were erected at Harbin to meet the needs of the army. As, however, their initial prosperity was due to an abnormal demand, the mills suffered a set-back when that demand fell off. There are in and near Harbin 10 large mills, and the

[1] Hosie, *op. cit.*, p. 247.

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capital invested in them amounted in 1907 to 6,000,000 roubles. Their productive capacity at its utmost is reckoned at 242,000 tons of flour per annum. In 1909 they were producing only 80,000 tons, or roughly one-third of their capacity. The local demand at that time was only 40,000 tons and the remainder had to be shipped to distant markets. To this the high rates on the Chinese Eastern Railway presented an obstacle, and the Harbin mills, according to the latest information, were only slowly recovering from the extremely depressed condition into which they had fallen.

Flour milling elsewhere is carried on on a small scale, except for a single modern steam mill at Tiehling, owned by Japanese.

Brewing and distilling are fairly well developed industries. There are 14 breweries in Harbin and others on the line of the Chinese Eastern Railway, which supply the demand of northern Manchuria but do not export.

The principal liquor distilled is known as *shao-chiu*. It is produced from kaoliang, and is stated to contain at least 40–50 per cent. of alcohol, the best kind containing as much as 60 per cent. About 600,000 piculs are produced annually, of which 90 per cent. is consumed within the country.

Industries connected with the soya bean are among the most prosperous in Manchuria. The principal products are bean-oil and bean-cake. About one-quarter of the bean crop, or 640,000 tons, is treated in the country. About one-third of the oil and nine-tenths of the cake are exported. In Dairen and Yingkow there are large factories with power plant; in general the oil concerns are small and worked by horse or mule power. In all there are said to be some 1,800 plants in Manchuria. Further particulars as to soya bean products will be found above (pp. 45–6).

There are many small industries working for local consumption only. The woollen industries include the manufacture of carpets and rugs from imported Mongolian wool, felt boots and other felt goods. Coarse cotton cloth is woven and dyed, and flax and hemp are

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worked to a small extent. Carts and wheels are manufactured, chiefly of oak and elm, and junks are built in large numbers in the neighbourhood of Kirin.

At Moukden the South Manchurian Railway has started a beet-sugar factory.

In connexion with the Fushun coal-mine the South Manchurian Railway, in combination with a Japanese concern, erected a plant in 1916 to manufacture calcium carbide and sulphate of ammonia.

The British American Tobacco Co. has a factory of considerable size in Moukden, and the Eastern Asia Tobacco Co. (a Japanese concern) a similar one in Newchwang. In the latter town a Chinese tobacco factory exists and is said to be making good headway.

In Dairen there is a cement factory in Japanese hands.

At Changchun there is a match factory employing 600 hands, also a Japanese enterprise.

## (C) COMMERCE

### (1) Domestic

#### (*a*) *Principal Branches of Trade*

Domestic commerce has so far reached no great development in Manchuria. The bulk of the population are peasants who provide a great deal for their own wants, both of the necessaries of life and of the implements of industry and agriculture. The marketing of agricultural products such as are not locally consumed, the coal and timber trades at ports, and the distribution of such manufactured goods as are imported, principally cotton goods and petroleum, constitute the great bulk of the trade within the country.

#### (*b*) *Towns, Markets, and Fairs*

*Harbin* is interested in the flour and grain trade and also in cattle and meat, which it exports; it imports and distributes locally textile goods, tobacco, sugar, hardwares, and groceries. The total trade of the town

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in 1908 was estimated at 35,500,000 rubles, of which the grain trade accounted for at least half.

*Manchouli*, *Tsitsihar*, and *Suifenho* have some trade in meat, eggs, butter, flour, and hides. Perishable goods which are destined for European consumption are brought to these centres for transport in refrigerators on the Chinese Eastern Railway.

*Kirin* was formerly a great commercial town, but until recently has been handicapped by lack of railway communications. It is nevertheless still a wealthy town with a large wholesale trade in timber. It is a centre for the whole of north-eastern Manchuria, and distributes cotton-cloth, kerosene, and other articles of daily requirement over a large area. The domestic trade of Kirin was valued at about 5,000,000 Haikwan taels in 1908.

*Tiehling* is second only to Changchun in the bean trade and has a similar general commerce.

*Moukden* is not generally considered a commercial centre, and its trade is mainly retail. Returns for 1908 value its domestic trade at 12,000,000 Mexican dollars.

*Liaoyang* has lost its former commercial importance since the Russo-Japanese War, and is now a local centre only.

*Changchun* is the principal centre of the internal trade of Manchuria and, as the meeting-point of the South Manchurian and the Chinese Eastern Railways, has a very large transit business. The chief articles of its trade are beans and grain, which are exported, and cotton goods, which are imported. The busy season is in winter, when the frozen rivers provide means of communication. Over 10,000,000 bushels of beans were brought to market in 1908, and over 10,000 tons of textiles, mainly cottons and valued at 7,000,000 yen, were imported into the town. Sugar, kerosene, tobacco, flour, and groceries are also freely dealt in.

A horse fair is held daily at Changchun, which is the principal centre for the sale and purchase of horses in Manchuria. Farm and transport animals form the bulk

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of the offerings, but twice a year, in spring and autumn, high-class animals for riding are brought to the fair in good numbers.

The position of *Newchwang* as a port and trading centre has suffered from the competition of Dairen and the diversion of part of the trade between China and Manchuria to the North China Railway; but the town still has, and must always retain, a certain trade owing to its situation on the Liao, which makes it the centre for the populous basin of that river. Its domestic trade is principally in the inevitable beans and cotton-cloth, with the addition of kerosene, sugar, glass, and hardware, which it distributes from imports, and ginseng, raw silk, and hides, which it receives for export.

### (*c*) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

The principal bodies falling under this head are the Chinese guilds, which are of three kinds: (1) the Kungso, or craft guild; (2) the Hweikwan, or strangers' guild; and (3) the Guild Merchant, of which the best instance is the 'Great Guild' of Newchwang.

(1) The *Kungso*, meaning in Chinese a public office or public place, or a place for the consideration of matters of public interest, is an association of the merchants and craftsmen of a particular trade, managed by an annually-elected committee. Its special duty is to arbitrate in business and other disputes between its members, and only in the last resort is an appeal to the law courts allowed. The guild, as representing the public opinion of the trade, exercises complete control in all matters of business, but it has no authorization from the Government or any external source. Its jurisdiction over members is absolute, 'not by reason of any charter or delegated power, but by virtue of the faculty of combination by the community and of coercion on the individual which is so characteristic of the Chinese race'.[1]

The income of the guild is derived from assessments

[1] Morse, *The Guilds of China*, p. 27.

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on business, voluntary gifts, and fines. The guild establishes rules as to apprenticeship and the conduct of business, and enforces them by a system of penalties ranging from fines of a score of candles for the temple or a dinner of so many dishes to the guild to cessation of business relations or commercial boycott. By declaring a suspension of all the business of the trade, the managing body sometimes even compels the Government to withdraw or modify an obnoxious order.

(2) The *Hweikwan*, or Club House, is an association for mutual support and responsibility among the natives of a particular province dwelling in a town outside that province. It exists to push the individual and collective interests of the body of aliens who constitute its members and to protect them against the hostility of natives and the rapacity of officials. It arbitrates between members, prosecutes their cases in the courts of law, and will even, in cases of necessity, bury the body of a dead member in its cemetery and pay his funeral expenses. It provides for such of its members as are strangers a free employment-agency, guarantees their respectability, and obtains for them information as to the solvency of any business man in the town.

Each club has a manager, advisory committee, and a permanent secretary who acts as the medium of communication between the club and the Government authorities. The club is supported by voluntary contributions and business assessments.

(3) The *Great Guild* of Newchwang is a body composed of the Chinese bankers and merchants residing there; formerly all the business in the place had to be carried on through it, and it was allowed to levy fees on the trade of the port. As an unofficial municipality it maintains drains, streets, and reservoirs, controls common lands, relieves the poor, and contributes to charitable societies. As a guild merchant, it draws up and enforces rules for the control of banking, trading, and markets.

Since in Newchwang there was formerly very little money, except copper cash, which was not in the coffers

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of members of the guild, foreigners were driven to receive the proceeds of the sale of their imports in goods for export, and always through the agency of members of the guild. Now that European banks maintain branches at Newchwang, and there is not such a dearth of money, the monopoly of business in the hands of members of the 'Great Guild' is less absolute.

It may be added that there is a Chamber of Commerce at Harbin and a body calling itself the Dairen Foreign Board of Trade at Dairen. These are foreign corporations. Chinese Chambers of Commerce exist at Moukden, Newchwang, Antung, Kirin, Changchun, and Harbin, and have in all 86 branches in the three provinces.

### (*d*) *Foreign Interests*

In Manchuria foreign interests, especially British, have been repeatedly affirmed by treaty to consist in the maintenance of the 'open door' and of the principle of equal opportunities for the commerce of all nations.

### (*e*) *Economic Penetration*

Japan has succeeded in obtaining a high degree of economic ascendancy in Manchuria. She has exclusive control of the most important commercial railway; all mining and timbering enterprises she shares with China, in a purely nominal partnership, to the exclusion of other nationalities; while Japanese alone are allowed to initiate industrial undertakings. The position that she occupies is such that she is able to veto the construction of any line that could compete with the South Manchurian Railway and has the preferential right of railway construction in its area. Only Japanese settlers are allowed within the railway zones; but the Japanese have the right to reside and trade where they please in southern Manchuria and have made themselves thoroughly familiar with the needs and customs of the country. Of the overseas

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trade 83 per cent. at Dairen, 47·6 per cent. at Antung, and 45 per cent. at Newchwang, is Japanese. Japan has the exclusive use of certain telegraph wires, worked by her own operators, and has her own post offices all over southern Manchuria. The Japanese banking system is everywhere represented by the Yokohama Specie Bank.

By virtue of recent agreements, if the revenues of southern Manchuria are pledged as security for foreign loans, Japanese capitalists have the first claim to advance the money required, while, if financial experts or political advisers are employed in southern Manchuria, they are to be Japanese.

As an instance of trade organization as a method of penetration may be cited a combination of five Japanese cotton textile companies in the Kansai district.[1] The combining firms agreed to export yearly 12,000 bales to the value of £120,000, even at the risk of loss, and to entrust the entire sales to a single firm, the Mitsui Bussan Kaisha. They are to receive special rates on steamers and railways and a loan from the Japanese Government of 6,000,000 yen (£600,000) at 4 per cent. Their transactions can be financed on specially favourable terms, since the Japanese Government, having to pay troops in Manchuria, remits through the Yokohama Specie Bank, which does not send the money direct, but lends it to the cotton traders, who repay the loan by selling goods in Manchuria.

The Japanese Government has also agreed to lend money at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to companies exporting matches, cement, beer, marine products, timber, and cotton yarn to Manchuria, and, in the event of a single concern effecting an export to Manchuria of more than 5,000,000 yen (£500,000) in one year, the Government undertakes to refund half the interest received.[2]

[1] The following particulars are taken from Lawton, *op. cit.*, pp. 1178, 1185–6.

[2] According to Millard, *The Far Eastern Question*, p. 203, the return is not half the interest but $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the loan; i.e. the interest is reduced from $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 per cent., which seems more likely.

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Meanwhile, American shippers have complained to their consuls that the Japanese railways in Manchuria discriminate against them by means of a rebate system, under which foreign shippers are excluded from the benefit of the minimum cargo regulations by not being allowed to combine their cargoes, whereas the Japanese secure rebates by this method.

### (2) Foreign

Successive treaties, negotiated between China and various commercial powers, have established Maritime Customs at various 'ports' of Manchuria, and have further opened a number of other centres to international trade. The list is as follows:

Customs Stations:

Aigun
Antung
Dairen
Harbin
Hunchun
Lungchingtsun
Manchouli
Newchwang
Sansing
Suifenho
Tatungkow

Open to Trade:

Changchun
Chuitzuchien } Chientao
Tontaokow } Chientao
Paitsaokow } Chientao
Fakumen
Fenghwangcheng
Hailar
Hsinminting
Kirin
Liaoyang
Moukden
Ninguta
Tsitsihar
Tungchiangtzu
Yingkow (port of Newchwang)

Manchuria is not a fiscal entity, but merely consists of the three eastern provinces of China. This fact would alone render it difficult to arrive at any exact estimate of the external trade of Manchuria, and the difficulty is increased by the fact that the Chinese

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Customs treat each 'port' as a distinct Customs area having its own imports and exports, in which are included not only goods coming from and going to foreign countries, but those from and to other Chinese ports as well. The extent to which, in these circumstances, it is possible to arrive at any estimate of the volume and value of Manchurian trade as a whole, or of the exports and imports of particular commodities, is discussed in a note in Appendix II, where will be found an explanation of the sense in which the words 'exports' and 'imports' are here used. It should be added that, while the general value of the trade of each port is given in the Maritime Customs Returns, the port statistics as a rule record the quantities only of separate commodities, and in view both of the constant variation in the value of the tael and the recent heavy depreciation of sterling, quantities would indeed appear to offer the best basis of comparison between different years.

### (*a*) *Exports*

A table is given in Appendix IV showing the quantities of the principal exports from Manchurian ports for the years 1913, 1914, and 1916. The total values are as follows (the conversion being made at the mean rate for each year):

| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Haikwan taels . . . | 94,090,410 | 88,388,589 | 112,203,901 |
| £ sterling . . . . | 14,217,060 | 12,073,881 | 18,603,406 |

Some details respecting exports have already been given in dealing with production. The most important are beans and bean-products; next come cereals and silk. On a comparison of the figures for 1916 with those for 1913 a considerable increase in the value of the exports will be observed. The quantities of beans and bean-products show a moderate, and of certain minor commodities a larger, increase; while there was a great decrease in the quantities of cereals (though not of flour) and of silk.



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It is not generally possible to give the countries of destination for exports, since trans-shipment is often effected at such ports as Hongkong and Shanghai and the identity of the goods lost sight of, but some idea of the shares of Manchurian exports taken by different countries may be obtained from the following particulars of the values of exports from Dairen in 1913 and 1914, it being remembered that the distribution varies greatly at different ports, Japanese preponderance being more marked at Dairen than at any other port except Antung, while in the trade of the northern ports Russia naturally takes the foremost place:

| *Country of Destination.* | 1913. | 1914. |
|---|---|---|
| | £ | £ |
| Japan | 3,966,008 | 3,979,365 |
| Korea | | 120,970 |
| Great Britain and Colonies | 234,859 | 300,806 |
| Hongkong | * | 106,629 |
| United States and Hawaii | 20,184 | 98,257 |
| Russia (Pacific ports) | * | 54,880 |
| Belgium | 196,556 | 166,156 |
| Germany | 8,473 | 30,071 |

* Not ascertained.

## (*b*) *Imports*

Cotton goods form by far the most considerable import into Manchuria. What the Japanese think of the country as a market for their cotton goods may be seen from a statement by Mr. Yamanobe, president of the Osaka Spinning Co.: [1]

'In our eyes the purchasing power of the Manchurians is almost boundless. The inhabitants of Manchuria are much better off than the Koreans, and, in addition to this advantage, about 20,000 persons are yearly flowing into the country from Shantung and thereabout. These new settlers add to the demand, and it is difficult to imagine how great will grow the consumption of cotton goods in Manchuria. . . .

'Manchuria itself is one of the best markets in the

[1] Quoted by Lawton, *op. cit.*, pp. 1180–1.

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world for cotton textiles. The art of weaving is yet in a very primitive state, and as it can by no means be improved in the near future, the inhabitants must look abroad for the supply of the cotton stuff for their clothing. The large majority of the population are peasants and labourers, and they are naturally inclined to prefer coarse and more durable Japanese cottons to finer calico.'

Details of the quantities of the principal articles imported through Manchurian ports are given in Appendix V. The cotton statistics certainly appear to justify Mr. Yamanobe's view that Japanese textiles will in the end oust all others from the Manchurian market. The total values of imports into Manchuria are as follows (the conversion being made at the mean rate for each year):

| | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Haikwan taels . . . . | 72,431,345 | 73,988,133 | 83,591,308 |
| £ sterling . . . . . | 10,941,290 | 10,107,668 | 13,862,571 |

Here again an increase will be observed between 1913 and 1916, though less marked than in the case of exports. As regards quantities the all-important cotton goods declined appreciably, metals increased, and so did engine oil, while kerosene decreased largely. There were substantial increases in gunny bags and rice. Cigarettes rose, while matches fell.

Some indication of the countries of origin of imports into Manchuria is afforded by the following table, which gives for the years 1913 and 1914 the values of goods imported into Dairen from the main sources of supply and is subject to the reservations already explained:

| *Country of Origin.* | 1913. £ | 1914. £ |
|---|---|---|
| Japan . . . . . | 3,530,367 | 2,402,108 |
| Korea . . . . . | | 153,408 |
| Great Britain and Colonies . . . . . | 255,890 | 239,135 |
| Hongkong . . . . . | * | 143,276 |
| United States . . . . . | 224,066 | 507,628 |
| Russia (Pacific ports) . . . . . | * | 237,851 |
| Belgium . . . . . | 51.333 | 87,710 |
| Germany . . . . . | 284,865 | 214,145 |

* Not ascertained.



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### (c) *Customs and Tariffs*

In former times, when European commerce with China was concentrated at Canton, the Hoppo, or Chinese Superintendent of Trade at that port, used to appoint thirteen *co-hong* merchants, and every foreigner trading at Canton had to do business through one of these. The *co-hòng* merchants had especially to see that foreigners for whom they were responsible paid their customs duties, and they controlled the customs houses, which were farmed out to them.

By the Treaty of Nanking in 1842, the customs duties were fixed at 5 per cent. for imports and 5 per cent. for exports payable at the treaty ports.

In the middle of the nineteenth century, owing to the expense incurred by the Government of China in connexion with the Taiping rebellion, a further tax was introduced called *Likin*, or 'contribution of a thousandth', imposed upon goods in inland transit. *Likin* stations or barriers were placed along the main routes of commerce both by land and water. An official *likin* tariff exists, but it is ignored both by officials and traders. The former endeavour to make profit by means of illegal exactions, and the latter seek to pay on fewer goods than are really cleared. Guilds and regular traders meet *likin* charges by the payment of lump sums. *Likin* is usually collected at the rate of 3 per cent. at the departure station and 2 per cent. at each inspection station. The amount collected within a province is usually limited to 10 per cent., but when goods are transported through several provinces it may amount to 15 or 20 per cent.

When commerce with Europe was extended to the treaty ports, a system arose by which customs duties, formerly collected by the *co-hong* merchants, were paid by European traders to their own consuls. This naturally led to fraud, and in 1863 the Chinese Maritime Customs Department was formed to collect the import and export duties and the *likin* tax at the treaty

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ports. In 1898 the Chinese Government agreed that the Customs Department, which had practically been created by Sir Robert Hart, should remain under a British Inspector-General so long as British trade was paramount in China. Under the Department a system grew up according to which foreign goods, on payment to the Maritime Customs of half the duty together with the *ad valorem* tariff, should be exempted from *likin* and obtain a 'transit pass' to clear them through all *likin* barriers. At treaty ports, foreign goods, on which the import duty has been paid, may be dispatched at any time to another treaty port without further payment.

The great difficulty in connexion with *likin* is that the central Government makes revenue demands on the provinces for specified sums, leaving it to the provincial Governments to raise them as they please. Each province enjoys a measure of fiscal autonomy and treaties of commerce with the central Government do not bind it. Thus on the one hand the European trader, who has paid extra tax to the Chinese Maritime Customs at the port of importation to free his goods from *likin*, complains that his transit pass does not avail him in the provinces, and, on the other hand, the Chinese revenue official complains that the European trader contributes nothing to the provincial revenue if *likin* cannot be imposed on his goods.

The import tariff of 5 per cent. on British goods remained unrevised for forty-four years, from the Treaty of Tientsin, 1858, to the Mackay Treaty of 1902. By Article VIII of the latter 'the Chinese Government, recognizing that the system of levying *likin* and other dues on goods at the place of production, in transit, and at destination impedes the free circulation of commodities and injures the interests of trade, hereby undertake to discard completely [subject to certain limitations] those means of raising revenue'. In return, the British Government agreed to a surtax not exceeding $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on foreign imports, and $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on exports, together with a consumption

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tax on articles of Chinese origin not intended for export.

Nevertheless in 1909 it was officially stated in the British Parliament that China, far from carrying out the provisions of this treaty, had on the contrary erected fresh *likin* barriers, and had further failed to do anything towards fulfilling her promise to reform the currency and judicature.

By existing arrangements foreign merchants other than British may import goods into, and export native produce from, China on payment of a tariff duty amounting to 5 per cent. on the average values of their imports in 1897–9, and 5 per cent. on the values of 1860 in the case of exports. They may take foreign goods to, and bring native produce from, any inland place on payment of an additional half tariff-duty as transit dues. They may also convey Chinese produce from port to port, paying the full export duty on shipment and half duty on landing. They can manufacture any kind of goods at treaty ports, subject only to the conditions binding on native producers, and are exempt from Chinese local taxation.

It may be remarked that the abolition of the export tax is a reform urgently called for in the interests of Chinese trade.

## (D) FINANCE

### (1) *Taxes*

A poll-tax is levied at the rate of 1 tael for each family, or group of families, a register being kept for the purpose.

The land-tax has already been discussed in dealing with land tenure. In 1915 the estimated revenue from this source from the three provinces was:

| | *Dollars.* |
|---|---|
| Shengking | 940,256 |
| Kirin | 792,223 |
| Heilungkiang | 362,017 |
| **Total for Manchuria** | **2,094,496** |
| **China (including Manchuria)** | **65,171,216** |

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There is also a salt gabelle. The manufacture of salt is a monopoly worked by a number of licensed merchants, and is conducted, on the low-lying western coast of the Kwantung peninsula, by the evaporation of sea water. Before the salt leaves the works, the manufacturer has to specify the quantity he is about to remove, the destination and the route by which the salt will travel. He then gets a permit for which he pays a lump sum, but payment is often made through the great native guilds, which stand security for their members. The retail price of salt at the works is stated to have been formerly from $1\frac{1}{4}$ to 2 farthings per pound according to quality; but its cost was raised enormously by *likin* charges, which often added 3 farthings to the price. The tax is said to have averaged 1 farthing a pound or a little more. Till recently it appears to have been collected in Manchuria at the rate of 0·63 dollar per *picul*, and the consumption seems to have been 3,600,000 *piculs* a year. Some years ago it was proposed to raise the tax to 2 dollars and eventually to 2·5 dollars, and to make it uniform throughout China, but it is not clear whether this change has actually taken place.

The province receives a portion of the maritime customs, and as much *likin* or transit duty as the local officials can induce traders to pay. All carts have to pay transit duties on passing through a customs barrier, and also on unloading. Further, there are percentages levied on sales of land, houses, and cattle, a Manchu paying 3 per cent. and a Chinaman 5 per cent. A tax of 3 per cent. is also charged on timber when it is marketed, and all gold-miners have to pay a portion of their gains. There are also licence fees for distilleries, carts, opium dealers, and native boats. Distilleries pay 300 to 500 taels per still in actual use.

On the whole, it seems to be the general opinion that the Manchurian is very lightly taxed.

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## (2) *Currency*

The system of currency found in China is probably the most complicated in the world, and the confusion is hardly less in Manchuria than in other parts. On this question Mr. Whigham remarks (*op. cit.*, p. 134) : 'In Manchuria the *diao* [tiao], or string of cash, is the only real standard of value. Silver is used for purposes of exchange, but only at its market value, like other commodities. . . . In such circumstances no stable system of finance is possible. Even if the *diao* had a fixed value, there would be no fixity about the paper money in circulation ; but when it is considered that the *diao* varies to an enormous extent, according to the size and purity of the cash in each district, so that in Kirin two *diao* go to the ruble, while in Tieh-ling the exchange varies from eight to ten, one may have some faint notion of the financial chaos of the country.'

The following is the table of theoretical values :

10 Hao = 1 Cash.
10 Cash = 1 Candareen.
10 Candareen = 1 Mace.
10 Mace = 1 Tael.

Theoretically also 10 cash = 1 cent, and 100 cents = 1 dollar, and further 10 rolls of 100 cash make up 1 tiao or string. Whence it appears that 1 tael = 1 tiao = 1 dollar. But since a certain charge is made for stringing cash, the tiao usually contains not 1,000 but only 960–990. Moreover, in northern China (Shantung and Chihli) one cash counts as two, so that the tiao contains nominally 500 cash and practically about 490 ; while in Manchuria the number of cash to a tiao is much smaller, at Newchwang 160, at Moukden and Kirin rather more. The tiao, it should be observed, is everywhere a string of cash and a measure of value, not itself a coin.

The tael again is not a coin, but represents a certain weight [1] of silver of a certain degree of fineness, and

[1] As a weight the tael is one-sixteenth of a catty or $1\frac{1}{3}$ oz. avoirdupois.

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there are, moreover, at least four different taels bearing a fixed ratio to one another, thus:

100 Haikwan taels = 101·642395 Kuping taels
= 105·215 Tientsin taels
= 114·4 Shanghai taels.

The Haikwan or Customs tael is that in which all customs dues are charged, the Kuping or Treasury tael that in which taxes are paid. The former is the most important for trade statistics, while exchange is usually quoted on Shanghai.

The sterling value of the Haikwan tael for recent years (based on the variation in the price of silver) is shown in the following table, which needs to be borne in mind whenever customs statistics for different years are compared:

| | 1910. | 1911. | 1912. | 1913. | 1914. | 1915. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Value. | 2*s.* $8\frac{5}{16}$*d.* | 2*s.* $8\frac{1}{4}$*d.* | 3*s.* $0\frac{5}{8}$*d.* | 3*s.* $0\frac{1}{4}$*d.* | 2*s.* $8\frac{3}{4}$*d.* | 2*s.* $7\frac{1}{4}$*d.* | 3*s.* $3\frac{13}{16}$*d.* |
| HT to £[1] | 7·43 | 7·44 | 6·55 | 6·62 | 7·32 | 7·68 | 6·03 |
| £ to HT[1] | 0·1345 | 0·1343 | 0·1527 | 0·1511 | 0·1366 | 0·1302 | 0·1658 |

[1] Approximate.

For actual currency the Spanish, Mexican, and Hongkong dollars pass in China at various rates according to the amount of silver they contain and their local popularity. But in Manchuria, besides cash, the only currency in general use is supplied by the paper notes of local bankers, and these only pass within the particular district in which the banker's credit runs. Thus if a traveller holding Moukden notes wishes to go to Kirin, he has first to change his notes in Moukden and buy a Kirin credit in silver, and then change his credit into Kirin notes.

Of recent years perhaps the most important medium of currency has been the Japanese War notes, which have now been replaced by those of the Yokohama Specie Bank.

The Russians endeavoured to force paper rubles into use, but the Chinese would only accept them at a heavy discount and then sent them to Shanghai to

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be changed into silver dollars or credits. Large numbers of counterfeit ruble notes have been imported into the country, the existence of which naturally depreciated yet further the current value of Russian paper in Manchuria.

The exchange value of the ruble is of course a matter of considerable importance in Manchuria, and its extreme depreciation in the course of the war has had very serious consequences for commerce. The Harbin District Trade Report for 1916 draws attention to the enormous fluctuations in the value of the ruble as reckoned in tiao in the northern provinces during 1914–16 :

| | 1914. | | 1915. | | 1916. | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *Kirin.* | *Tsitsihar.* | *Kirin.* | *Tsitsihar.* | *Kirin.* | *Tsitsihar.* |
| Highest . . | 23·50 | 31·50 | 16·70 | 20·20 | 12·80 | 13·44 |
| Lowest . . | 8·40 | 11·40 | 7·05 | 7·40 | 4·99 | 5·54 |
| Average . . | 13·40 | 16·53 | 10·98 | 14·03 | 9·14 | 10·31 |

Meanwhile at the end of the year 1916, 100 Shanghai taels exchanged for 320 rubles, the normal rate being 120 to 130, and £10 for 175 rubles, the normal rate being 98 (and the actual par 94·57).

In some instances values have been given in the present volume in rubles, and to these the normal rate may be applied. In certain other cases values have been quoted in Japanese yen, which are equivalent to $24\frac{1}{2}d.$ (taken as approximately 10 to £1).

### (3) *Banking and Financial Influence*

British banking is represented in Manchuria by the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation at Dairen and Harbin; Russian by the Russo-Asiatic Bank at Dairen, Harbin, and Newchwang; and Japanese by the Yokohama Specie Bank at Dairen, Newchwang, Antung, Moukden, and Harbin, and by its offshoot, the Bank of Manchuria, at Moukden. The Chinese have the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications at Moukden.

Other banks operating in Manchuria are the Chenlung Bank and the Ta-Ching Bank at Dairen, the Bank of

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Chosen (Korea) at Antung, and two concerns, the Harbin Mutual Banking Corporation and the Second Harbin Mutual Banking Corporation, at Harbin.

In view of the fact that industrial and mining enterprises in southern Manchuria are practically monopolized by the Japanese, it is reasonable to suppose that the Yokohama Specie Bank, which is the most widely represented there and has Government support behind it, wields a greater influence than any other bank.

Japanese penetration has not left much room for the investment of other foreign capital in Manchuria, but the most profitable fields would appear to be mining and lumbering in Kirin and Heilungkiang and the improvement of railway communications in those provinces in order to exploit their undoubted agricultural capabilities.

## (E) GENERAL REMARKS

Economically the greatest need of Manchuria is security of life and property and freedom from brigandage. Next to this, and closely associated with it, is the provision of better roads to open up the remoter parts and serve as feeders to the existing railways. This need is even more urgent than the construction of fresh lines. Further, while it is evident that the resources of Manchuria cannot be developed without the help of foreign enterprise, it may be permissible to suggest that it would be to the benefit not only of Manchuria itself, but also of foreign nations in general, if that help should take a rather more disinterested and less exclusive form than has hitherto been the case.

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# APPENDIX

## I.—NUMBERS AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS ENTERING AND CLEARING UNDER GENERAL REGULATIONS AT THE THREE CHIEF SOUTHERN PORTS

### 1913

| *Class.* | *Flag.* | *Dairen.* | | *Newchwang.* | | *Antung.* | | *Total.* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *No.* | *Tons.* | *No.* | *Tons.* | *No.* | *Tons.* | *No.* | *Tons.* |
| Steamers | Japanese | 2,997 | 3,421,047 | 595 | 736,565 | 240 | 127,698 | 3,832 | 4,285,310 |
| | British | 318 | 524,775 | 354 | 455,870 | 42 | 48,672 | 714 | 1,029,317 |
| | German | 218 | 384,646 | 4 | 4,356 | — | — | 222 | 389,002 |
| | Chinese | 113 | 53,733 | 227 | 185,072 | 90 | 52,794 | 430 | 291,599 |
| | Others | 58 | 84,643 | 80 | 62,036 | — | — | 138 | 146,679 |
| | Total | 3,704 | 4,468,844 | 1,260 | 1,443,899 | 372 | 229,164 | 5,336 | 6,141,907 |
| Sailing Vessels | Japanese | 44 | 1,723 | — | — | 756 | 19,452 | 800 | 21,175 |
| | Chinese | 32 | 910 | 4 | 90 | 114 | 2,238 | 150 | 3,238 |
| | Total | 76 | 2,633 | 4 | 90 | 870 | 21,690 | 950 | 24,413 |
| GRAND TOTAL | | 3,780 | 4,471,477 | 1,264 | 1,443,989 | 1,242 | 250,854 | 6,286 | 6,166,320 |



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1914

| Class. | Flag. | Dairen. No. | Dairen. Tons. | Newchwang. No. | Newchwang. Tons. | Antung. No. | Antung. Tons. | Total. No. | Total. Tons. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Steamers | Japanese | 2,818 | 3,522,955 | 573 | 720,721 | 204 | 128,386 | 3,595 | 4,372,062 |
| | British | 298 | 558,188 | 275 | 382,615 | 60 | 63,046 | 633 | 1,003,849 |
| | German | 140 | 253,266 | — | — | — | — | 140 | 253,266 |
| | Chinese | 242 | 108,243 | 179 | 149,203 | 118 | 76,178 | 539 | 333,624 |
| | Others | 57 | 75,003 | 82 | 63,892 | — | — | 139 | 138,895 |
| | Total | 3,555 | 4,517,655 | 1,109 | 1,316,431 | 382 | 267,610 | 5,046 | 6,101,696 |
| Sailing Vessels | Japanese | 63 | 4,086 | — | — | 668 | 19,834 | 731 | 23,920 |
| | Chinese | — | — | — | — | 70 | 1,372 | 70 | 1,372 |
| | Total | 63 | 4,086 | — | — | 738 | 21,206 | 801 | 25,292 |
| GRAND TOTAL | | 3,618 | 4,521,741 | 1,109 | 1,316,431 | 1,120 | 288,816 | 5,847 | 6,126,988 |

*Note.*—Figures for vessels under Inland Steam Navigation Rules are not included in these tables, since they presumably refer exclusively to local and river traffic, and as such throw no light on the importance of the ports for foreign trade. They are comparable with the navigation figures for inland ports such as Harbin and Aigun.

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I (*continued*)

1916

| *Class.* | *Flag.* | *Dairen.* | | *Newchwang.* | | *Antung.* | | *Total.* | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | *No.* | *Tons.* | *No.* | *Tons.* | *No.* | *Tons.* | *No.* | *Tons.* |
| Steamers | Japanese . . | 2,807 | 2,946,264 | 318 | 328,842 | 328 | 134,548 | 3,453 | 3,409,654 |
| | British . . | 181 | 265,483 | 204 | 234,710 | 68 | 83,638 | 453 | 583,831 |
| | German . . | — | — | — | — | — | — | — | — |
| | Chinese . . | 382 | 170,061 | 113 | 112,802 | 132 | 84,568 | 627 | 367,431 |
| | Others . . | 71 | 173,209 | 46 | 45,780 | — | — | 117 | 218,989 |
| | Total . . | 3,441 | 3,555,017 | 681 | 722,134 | 528 | 302,754 | 4,650 | 4,579,905 |
| Sailing Vessels | Japanese . . | 383 | 11,007 | — | — | 570 | 19,442 | 953 | 30,449 |
| | Chinese . . | — | — | — | — | 54 | 1,066 | 54 | 1,066 |
| | Total . . | 383 | 11,007 | — | — | 624 | 20,508 | 1,007 | 31,515 |
| GRAND TOTAL . . | | 3,824 | 3,566,024 | 681 | 722,134 | 1,152 | 323,262 | 5,657 | 4,611,420 |

*Note.*—Figures for vessels under Inland Steam Navigation Rules are not included.

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## II.—NOTE ON IMPORT AND EXPORT STATISTICS

For the trade of Manchuria we depend on the statistics of the Chinese Maritime Customs, which record the quantities of different goods entering and leaving the Customs ports. It is probably no great matter that several out of the eleven Manchurian 'ports' are neither on the coast nor on the land frontier, since goods are generally forwarded direct by rail or river and pass through the Customs on arrival or departure. But it is clear that these statistics cannot afford a complete survey of the trade of the country. For one thing there is no record of goods passing through the Native Customs except where these customs houses are within a specified distance of, and are controlled by, the Maritime Customs. This trade, however, probably consists in the main of more or less local transport of Chinese produce along with a certain re-export of foreign goods, and though it may play a part of some consequence in the commercial relations of Manchuria with the rest of China, it can hardly have any important bearing upon the trade of foreign countries. Again, there is the trade passing over the North China Railway between Pekin and Moukden, concerning which practically no information is available. But even apart from these considerations it is evident that no quite satisfactory figures regarding Manchurian trade can be extracted from the returns of a number of separate Customs ports or districts, whose embracing system, moreover, is not Manchuria but China. Thus at any particular port the imports of foreign (i.e. non-Chinese) goods include goods imported direct from foreign countries, and also goods of foreign origin imported from other Chinese ports, and these ports may be in Manchuria or may not; while, of course, Chinese goods imported may come from some other district of Manchuria, or else from quite a different part of China. Similarly with exports of local origin, and re-exports both of foreign and Chinese products: these goods may be forwarded direct to a foreign country or they may be sent to another Chinese port. And, as before, this Chinese port may be a Manchurian port or it may not, and the goods sent there may be consumed locally or may be re-exported to a foreign country or to yet another Chinese port.

Section III of this Appendix consists of tables analysing the values of the trade of the Manchurian ports for the years 1913, 1914, and 1916. It will be seen that under Imports the first column represents the total foreign goods imported into

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and consumed in Manchuria. The second represents the total Chinese produce coming into Manchurian ports, and includes some produced in other districts of Manchuria. Consequently neither the total of this column nor that of the third column can properly be taken as representing the imports of Manchuria as a whole. Since, therefore, the interest of the present inquiry lies, so far as imports are concerned, mainly in the Manchurian consumption of foreign goods, the term 'imports' as used in the text has been taken as meaning the goods here represented by the values of the first column only.

Under Exports in the tabular analysis, the first column gives the exports of local origin sent direct from Manchurian ports to foreign countries (and Hongkong). These figures therefore represent the minimum foreign exports. The second column represents goods of local origin sent to other Chinese (including Manchurian) ports, and these goods may therefore be consumed in Manchuria itself, or in China, or be re-exported to foreign countries. It is, therefore, certain that some portion of the values in the second column might correctly be included in the first, while probably the greater portion represents true exports so far as Manchuria is concerned.[1] On the other hand, it is certain that the third column, containing the totals of the first two, includes the value of some goods that are consumed in Manchuria, though these are very likely balanced, or more than balanced, by goods exported through the Native Customs. In the text 'exports' has been taken to mean the goods whose values here appear in the third column. This is not altogether satisfactory (though the objection is more theoretical than practical), but it has been necessitated by the fact that in the reports of the Maritime Customs, while the values are analysed as in the tables here printed, the export

[1] It is possible to form some idea of what, in a particular case, 'other Chinese ports' probably means by observing the destination of the bulk of the re-exports of foreign goods from the Manchurian ports (recorded by the Maritime Customs). It seems a fair, though not a certain, inference that the chief destination of re-exports is in general also the chief destination of exports. It will be observed that most of the re-exports leave Manchuria.

Aigun re-exports chiefly to 'Humoho gold mines and others'.
Manchouli re-exports chiefly to Chefoo, Tientsin, Shanghai.
Harbin re-exports chiefly to Aigun, Sansing.
Hunchun re-exports chiefly to Yenki.
Lungchingtsun re-exports chiefly to Yenki, Towtaokow.
Antung re-exports chiefly to Chefoo, Tatungkow.
Tatungkow re-exports chiefly to Chefoo, Antung.
Dairen re-exports chiefly to Antung, Chefoo, Shanghai, Tientsin, Lungkow, Kiaochow.
Newchwang re-exports chiefly to Shanghai, Chefoo, Tientsin, Swatow, Lungkow.

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statistics under the various ports as a rule only record the total quantities of individual commodities exported (less re-exports) without indicating the destination. No confusion should arise if it is borne in mind that 'imports' means 'net import of non-Chinese goods', and 'exports' means 'total exports of local origin to foreign countries and Chinese ports', and that in either case the figures are confined to the Maritime Customs.[1]

[1] Not only have the figures for the Newchwang Native Customs (published by the Maritime Customs) been omitted (except where the contrary is expressly stated), but likewise those for the junk traffic at Dairen, since these too are excluded from the analysis of value compiled by the Maritime Customs. The statistics published in the reports of the Chinese Maritime Customs are in all cases models of comprehensive accuracy: care is, however, required in using them, as their meaning does not always lie on the surface.



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# III.—TRADE ANALYSIS

## ANALYSIS OF PORT TRADE FOR 1913

Value in Haikwan taels

| | Imports. | | | Exports. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Port. | *Foreign Goods imported from Foreign Countries and Chinese Ports less re-exports.* | *Chinese Produce imported less re-exports.* | *Net Total Imports.* | *Chinese Produce of local origin exported to Foreign Countries and Hong Kong.* | *Chinese Produce of local origin exported to other Chinese Ports.* | *Total Exports of local origin.* |
| Aigun . | 513,933 | 505,076 | 1,019,009 | 188,667 | 24,351 | 213,018 |
| Sansing . | 228,602 | 369,483 | 598,085 | 2,445,967 | 126,106 | 2,572,073 |
| Manchouli . | 11,410,617 | 1,513,150 | 12,923,767 | 1,780,193 | — | 1,780,193 |
| Harbin . | —[1] | 3,816,195 | 3,816,195 | 2,800,796 | 1,800,596 | 4,601,392 |
| Suifenho . | 7,263,937 | — | 7,263,937 | 13,913,326 | — | 13,913,326 |
| Hunchun . | 334,037 | 140,973 | 475,010 | 403,706 | 18,545 | 422,251 |
| Lungchingtsun | 671,199 | — | 671,199 | 174,315 | — | 174,315 |
| Antung . | 6,870,965 | 1,116,839 | 7,987,804 | 3,659,645 | 3,158,507 | 6,818,152 |
| Tatungkow . | 14,140 | 4,360 | 18,500 | 44,976 | 22,884 | 67,860 |
| Dairen . | 29,073,341 | 4,225,807 | 33,299,148 | 29,749,041 | 9,298,702 | 39,047,743 |
| Newchwang . | 16,050,574 | 9,533,793 | 25,584,367 | 10,999,477 | 13,480,610 | 24,480,087 |
| Totals . | 72,431,345 | 21,225,676 | 93,657,021 | 66,160,109 | 27,930,301 | 94,090,410 |

[1] The statistics show an unexplained excess of re-exports over imports amounting to Hk. taels 1,136,816, the meaning of which it has not been possible to ascertain.

## ANALYSIS OF PORT TRADE FOR 1914

Value in Haik'wan taels

| Port. | Imports. *Foreign Goods imported from Foreign Countries and Chinese Ports less re-exports.* | *Chinese Produce imported less re-exports.* | *Net Total Imports.* | Exports. *Chinese Produce of local origin exported to Foreign Countries and Hong Kong.* | *Chinese Produce of local origin exported to other Chinese Ports.* | *Total Exports of local origin.* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Aigun . | 627,033 | 681,205 | 1,308,238 | 258,016 | 49,056 | 307,072 |
| Sansing . | 277,697 | 401,234 | 678,931 | 2,602,338 | 214,749 | 2,817,087 |
| Manchouli . | 10,209,172 | 1,794,628 | 12,003,800 | 1,666,986 | — | 1,666,986 |
| Harbin . | —[1] | 2,284,440 | 2,284,440 | 3,003,637 | 1,402,455 | 4,406,092 |
| Suifenho . | 5,759,238 | — | 5,759,238 | 11,643,631 | — | 11,643,631 |
| Hunchun . | 359,504 | 103,127 | 462,631 | 236,201 | 18,118 | 254,319 |
| Lungchingtsun | 506,826 | — | 506,826 | 58,672 | — | 58,672 |
| Antung . | 13,161,751 | 1,212,957 | 14,374,708 | 3,018,424 | 2,727,578 | 5,746,002 |
| Tatungkow . | 17,051 | 11,368 | 28,419 | 118,452 | 46,920 | 165,372 |
| Dairen . | 29,516,642 | 4,095,342 | 33,611,984 | 36,601,327 | 8,504,480 | 45,105,807 |
| Newchwang . | 13,553,219 | 7,624,762 | 21,177,981 | 7,196,943 | 9,020,606 | 16,217,549 |
| Totals . | 73,988,133 | 18,209,063 | 92,197,196 | 66,404,627 | 21,983,962 | 88,388,589 |

[1] Excess of re-exports over imports Hk. taels 1,509,729.



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## ANALYSIS OF PORT TRADE FOR 1916

**Value in Haikwan taels**

| | Imports. | | | Exports. | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *Ports.* | *Foreign Goods imported from Foreign Countries and Chinese Ports less re-exports.* | *Chinese Produce imported less re-exports.* | *Net Total Imports.* | *Chinese Produce of local origin exported to Foreign Countries and Hong Kong.* | *Chinese Produce of local origin exported to other Chinese Ports.* | *Total Exports of local origin.* |
| Aigun . . | 356,947 | 794,041 | 1,150,988 | 119,127 | 294,292 | 413,419 |
| Sansing . | 101,749 | 342,147 | 443,896 | 471,208 | 56,620 | 527,828 |
| Manchouli . | 2,985,916 | 316,225 | 3,302,141 | 16,039,574 | 84,372 | 16,123,946 |
| Harbin . | —[1] | 1,420,605 | 1,420,605 | 672,797 | 2,067,115 | 2,739,912 |
| Suifenho . | 15,845,098 | — | 15,845,098 | 14,578,811 | — | 14,578,811 |
| Hunchun . | 336,657 | — | 336,657 | 269,728 | — | 269,728 |
| Lungchingtsun | 284,549 | — | 284,549 | 112,577 | — | 112,577 |
| Antung . | 18,507,536 | 1,626,365 | 20,133,901 | 4,855,892 | 3,754,073 | 8,609,965 |
| Tatungkow . | 8,444 | 2,879 | 11,323 | 9,105 | 12,873 | 21,978 |
| Dairen . | 35,954,742 | 9,113,801 | 45,068,543 | 43,135,327 | 11,572,920 | 54,708,247 |
| Newchwang . | 9,209,670 | 8,171,996 | 17,381,666 | 4,919,166 | 9,178,324 | 14,097,490 |
| Totals . | 83,591,308 | 21,788,059 | 105,379,367 | 85,183,312 | 27,020,589 | 112,203,901 |

[1] Excess of re-exports over imports Hk. taels 2,738,831.

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## IV.—PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

Quantities in piculs of $133\frac{1}{3}$ lb. or 60·453 kg. (16·8 piculs = 1 ton).

| *Commodity.*[1] | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|
| Beans and Peas[2] . . . | 8,473,718 | 10,664,725 | 9,264,790 |
| Bean-cake . . . . | 13,608,742 | 12,072,685 | 14,888,872 |
| Bean oil . . . . . | 742,400 | 736,149 | 1,377,256 |
| Kaoliang (tall millet) . . | 1,048,200 | 241,908 | 389,434 |
| Millet (spiked) . . . | 1,479,882 | 794,044 | 239,449 |
| Maize . . . . . | 218,335 | 559,653 | 143,859 |
| Wheat and Wheat Flour[3] . . | 2,085,409 | 2,208,092 | 1,629,366 |
| Total Cereals[4] . . . | 4,844,729 | 3,773,963 | 1,945,848 |
| [8]Wild Silk[5] . . . . | 18,382 | 15,412 | 14,028 |
| [8]Wild Cocoons[6] . . . | 168,529 | 105,484 | 73,061 |
| [8] Waste Silk . . . . | 13,403 | 14,056 | 13,741 |
| Tobacco[7] . . . . | 15,019 | 11,926 | 16,441 |

[1] Coal and coke are exported from southern ports only; see p. 54. Timber is differently classified at different ports; see pp. 51–2.

[2] Beans and peas, as distinct from beans, appear in the exports at Sansing, Manchouli, Harbin, Suifenho, and Hunchun (both appear at Sansing): 1913, 4,253,019; 1914, 4,092,963; 1916, 4,596,076.

[3] Flour, all from Harbin district: 1913, 242,264; 1914, 242,973; 1916, 419,029.

[4] Including, besides those specified in the table, barley, oats, and buckwheat, and unspecified cereals from Manchouli, but excluding flour.

[5] Including filature from Dairen: 1916, 1,246; and pongee from Antung: 1913, 89; 1914, 123; 1916, 102.

[6] Including refuse: 1913, 371; 1914, 285; 1916, 1,110.

[7] Including cigarettes from Harbin: 1916, 1,622; and a small amount of stalk from Antung.

[8] Silk is exported from the four southern ports only.

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## V.—PRINCIPAL IMPORTS OF FOREIGN GOODS

| *Commodity.* | *Classifier.* | 1913. | 1914. | 1916. |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Cotton Goods [1]:** | | | | |
| Shirtings, grey, American | Pieces | 177,885 | 60,093 | 9,265 |
| ,, ,, English | ,, | 110,989 | 73,713 | 53,750 |
| ,, ,, Japanese | ,, | 76,110 | 69,226 | 124,738 |
| ,, ,, Total [2] | ,, | 466,218 | 295,380 | 188,073 |
| ,, white [3] | ,, | 267,112 | 320,079 | 223,897 |
| Sheetings, grey, American | ,, | 298,675 | 186,726 | 152,124 |
| ,, ,, English | ,, | 22,703 | 29,981 | 16,082 |
| ,, ,, Japanese [4] | ,, | 2,003,363 | 3,214,360 | 793,782 |
| ,, ,, Total [2] | ,, | 2,333,544 | 3,460,724 | 978,240 |
| Drills, American | ,, | 83,999 | 63,732 | 52,063 |
| ,, English | ,, | 3,861 | 3,276 | 1,067 |
| ,, Japanese | ,, | 372,985 | 434,034 | 327,941 |
| ,, Total [2] | ,, | 477,262 | 510,978 | 381,165 |
| Jeans, English | ,, | 422,895 | 359,778 | 131,928 |
| ,, Japanese | ,, | 65,276 | 147,110 | 351,269 |
| ,, Total [5] | ,, | 502,503 | 516,673 | 483,197 |
| T-cloths, English | ,, | 4,503 | 3,486 | 3,217 |
| ,, Japanese | ,, | 31,136 | 3,399 | 28,885 |
| ,, Total [2] | ,, | 39,614 | 8,345 | 32,932 |
| Cotton Cloth [4, 6] | ,, [7] | 3,295,830 | 1,436,227 | 4,093,175 |
| Plain Cottons, Total [8] | ,, | 7,382,083 | 6,548,406 | 6,380,679 |
| Dyed, fancy, and misc. Cottons [9] | ,, | 638,966 | 563,743 | 370,861 |
| Cotton Yarn | Piculs | 133,117 | 161,189 | 141,842 |
| Silk Piece Goods [10] | ,, | 292 | 1,340 | 508 |
| Iron and Mild Steel, new and old | ,, | 448,899 | 479,537 | 575,248 |
| Iron, galvanized, sheets and wire | ,, | 58,804 | 45,682 | 24,361 |
| Tinned Plates | ,, | 26,938 | 31,774 | 38,302 |
| Oil, Engine | U.S. gall. | 704,322 | 821,866 | 961,705 |
| Oil, Kerosene | ,, | 19,167,990 | 18,877,123 | 11,992,690 |
| Bags, new and old [11] | Pieces | 12,780,391 | 17,354,082 | 16,937,304 |
| Rice | Piculs | 391,383 | 471,658 | 564,043 |
| Cigarettes | Mille | 956,243 | 940,449 | 1,020,193 |
| Matches | Gross | 3,058,861 | 2,367,398 | 2,818,586 |
| Sugar | Piculs | 411,353 | 384,903 | 406,505 |
| Electrical Plant and Fittings | Value H.T. | 342,169 | 544,885 | 805,398 |
| Railway Plant [12] | ,, | 205,269 | 627,214 | 511,672 |
| Medicines | ,, | 181,365 | 217,800 | 936,637 |

[1] The great bulk of cotton goods is imported through Antung, Dairen, and Newchwang. Of the small quantity coming through northern ports most enters Suifenho

[2] Including those of unspecified origin.

[3] Including small quantities of white sheetings entering Aigun.

[4] Certain goods entering Antung, and classed in 1913 and 1914 as Japanese grey sheetings, were classed in 1916 as Japanese cotton cloth.

[5] Including those of American and unspecified origin.

[6] Including Japanese cotton cloth and imitation native cotton cloth and Nankeens

[7] Averaged at 20 yards.

[8] Total of previous items in the table.

[9] Including all other cotton goods quoted by the piece except blankets.

[10] Silk goods enter Antung and Dairen almost exclusively.

[11] Mostly gunny.

[12] Entered at Dairen only.

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